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THE AIMS, DUTIES, AND OPPORTUNITIES OF THE HEAD-MASTER OF AN ENDOWED SECONDARY SCHOOL¹

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As one considers the kind of person required for the position of a head-master, there come to the mind lines of the once well-known opera *Patience*. In giving a receipt for "that popular mystery known to the world as a Heavy Dragoon" we are bidden to take:

The genius strategic of Caesar or Hannibal;
Skill of Sir Garnet in thrashing a cannibal;
Flavor of Hamlet: the Stranger, a touch of him;
Little of Manfred (but not very much of him):
Beadle of Burlington: Richardson's Show:
Mr. Micawber and Madame Tussaud,
Take of these elements all that is fusible,
Melt 'em all down in a pipkin or crucible:
Set 'em to simmer, and take off the scum,
And a Heavy Dragoon is the residuum.

At a meeting of the Head-Masters' Association, some years ago, one of its members declared that the duty of the head-master was to do the chores which the other masters would not do. And truly the chores seem numberless at times. The head-

¹ This article is the first of a series of articles by head-masters and principals treating of the administrative problems of various types of secondary schools.
—Ed. *School Review*.

master is expected to decide upon the number of towels which should be supplied for every boy; to know whether the turkeys last Sunday were fresh, and if not, why not; to determine whether a boy may leave school before vacation begins, if the happiness of his family seems to be involved therein; whether the wall should be painted red or green; whether the remark of a pupil to some master should be taken seriously or not. It strikes an on-looker, no doubt, as using "five-dollar time for fifty-cent work;" and to the man himself his days occasionally appear to be spent *laboriose nihil agendo*: but in his saner moments, it is quite different. The number of towels and personal cleanliness are related to one another; cold-storage turkeys imply poor health and bad economy; the continuity of a boy's life depends upon his remaining at the school through the term; upon the attitude taken toward a boy's manner may depend his courtesy through life. Dr. Thring, one of the greatest of modern school-masters, used frequently to speak of the "almighty wall." It was his opinion that the arrangement of the buildings, and not only that but also the form and color of a boy's surroundings, made a lasting impression upon his character.

The head-master must have an eye to all these things. If they bore him and his delight is in teaching alone, he should be an instructor in a college or in a day school. If, on the other hand, they are the only things which make his heart leap up, then the probability is that the world has lost an efficient business man. When everything that concerns the fabric of the school and all things that have a bearing upon the development of boys in any part of their nature appeal to a man, then he cannot ask for a happier lot than to be the head-master of a boarding-school. Even then, it will constantly be "for a care" to him to avoid missing the forest for the trees.

With the head-master rests the task of determining the much-vexed question of the school curriculum, whether it shall run upon modern progressive lines, and, if so, what these lines may be; or whether it shall adhere in large measure to the conservative programme which retains even Greek as a regular study.

As soon as the universities have decided between the varying

claims of new subjects, the schools will be called to meet these problems. At present, the studies of a school which sends practically all its pupils to college are generally determined by the university authorities.

Under these circumstances, the head-master is comparatively free to give his time and attention to the important work of his life, which lies in relation to persons. Upon this depends what is vaguely called the atmosphere of the school.

First of all, there are the head-master's relations with the other masters. It is not unusual, so biographies of school-masters bear witness, for a man who is competent with boys to fail to understand and to work peaceably with his colleagues. Thus was it with Thring, and with Almond Loretto, the story of whose life has lately inspired us. And indeed it is a difficult part of the problem. A school cannot well be governed, as is a college, by a faculty deciding measures by a majority vote. The world outside—which means especially the parents—holds the head-master personally responsible for the management of the school and for the care of the individual boys. One has only to consider how the blame for anything which is even remotely connected with a school is visited upon the head-master. Incidentally, it may be remarked that there is often attributed to him the credit which should go to the other men. In the boarding-school of moderate size, between one hundred and twenty-five and one hundred and seventy-five boys, it is expected that the head-master shall reach and be responsible for the final decision in every question. It is his privilege, however, to be in close touch with a number of men whose knowledge and judgment are available and whom he is careful to consult on all important questions, and he should be sufficiently open-minded to allow their views to influence him. Thus he may and should speak of the government of the school as “we” and still be willing to accept personally the outcome of any policy or action.

The classroom is the kingdom of the teacher, to whom it belongs. The freedom of it may be given to the head-master and he ought to know the kind of things that are being carried on therein; but, except in the case of an untried man, the proba-

bility is that the teacher knows as much of his subject as the head-master and very likely more, and that his methods are much better calculated to express his personality. In connection with this point, the remarks of an educator, which were found in a school magazine not long ago, sound remote:

In all his dealings with teachers, the principal should show a wide toleration and a beneficent consistency in word and deed. Social groups of teachers should not be looked upon with suspicion. Slight errors of individual teachers should be overlooked, especially if the work on the average is good. A principal should not take one mistake which may have offended him and hold it over a teacher's head all the term. Differences of a personal nature should have no influence on official actions. . . . Justice is a difficult thing to procure, but an approximation of it is possible. Careful study of the official requirements, impartial weighing of evidence, disregard of any personal feelings or emotional bias is necessary. Teachers should exist for the principal as human co-operative agents of a certain efficiency, and this efficiency should always have in view the good of the child.

In the boarding-school teachers certainly exist for the good of the boy, but there is no such formal relationship between the head-master and his assistants as becomes necessary in the public school. With us, the head-master, or principal, and the other masters are men who are united first of all by devotion to a common cause or loyalty to an institution and then become friends, one of the other, through their love for the school and its boys.

In his relations with the boys, the head-master should be first of all a teacher. It is a significant fact that often the principal's room in the school building is called the "office." From this too often follows the modern form of the ancient fallacy that there is inevitably a great gulf between the head-master and the boys. In his "office," he becomes a man of business to older people, to the boys he stands for the policeman. Let the room be a "study," and let the head-master—whatever work he may be obliged to neglect—refuse to surrender the privilege and the joy of teaching. He may not have the opportunities for study which come to the other men, but he can with effort keep abreast of the time in his particular subject. Some compensation for a lack of erudition, if it exists, may be found in the fact that the

boys will be inclined to study harder for the head-master than for the others, and that in teaching he learns a good deal about a boy which he can get in no other way.

The discipline of the head-master must be such as to make itself felt behind the dealings of the other men. This seems to be the sacrifice which he is obliged to make—that he shall be held in some awe rather than govern by affection, as he fain would do. There arise occasions not infrequently in which he must deal cogently with a boy who has failed to be impressed with the treatment that he has received at another master's hands. Questions, too, as to where the right lies in a disagreement between a master and a boy come up for his decision. In the latter, there will have to be a good deal of the *suaviter in modo*, while in the former instance, there is need of that quality which prompted a Rugby boy to write of his head-master

Temple is a brute, but he is a just brute.

In dealing with moral offenses also, for which in some schools ordinary punishment is thought to be unfitting, the head-master to whom evil is reported must have established himself in the mind of the boy in such a way that his words and still more his feelings will make a solemn impression upon the offender.

In addition to teaching and disciplinary matters of his office the head-master brings himself into contact with the boys in a variety of informal ways which indeed make up the greater part of human relationship. He takes the opportunity to talk with a boy in regard to anything that concerns the lad's life. If the head-master is fortunate enough to be also the chaplain of the school he can get to understand the boy's spiritual nature, or the boy can get to understand the master's, which may perhaps be as helpful; and at such a time as confirmation, when new thoughts and high ideals arise within a boy, the head-master may hope to have a part in the boy's great decision.

There are numerous other ways in which the head-master meets the boys, in chance conversations, in games, when they are looking on or playing together; and in the almost constant intercourse which exists between those who spend the greater part

of their time under the same roof. The greatest intimacy comes when the boys have reached the highest class in the school. Then they are invited to co-operate with the authorities of the school in the management of the brethren. All the members of the Sixth Form may have responsibility for some of the boys, and some of them for all the boys. A strong tie is at once made as soon as a boy attempts to do the same work as a master. This gives a splendid opportunity for genuine friendship in a common cause; and in the case of prefects or of boys to whom the largest responsibility is given, they become fellow-workers with all the masters, and with the head-master especially they live on terms of free and cordial comradeship. Only the beginnings of this form of co-operative government have been made. The mighty influence which may be brought to bear in this way upon the character and the development of boys will be revealed when men of sufficient breadth of statesmanship will devote themselves to the education of youth.

This friendship which should exist in the latter part of a boy's career at school may be retained and deepened as he grows into manhood. With the growth of our great universities there has come a certain impersonal aspect in college life which may be supplemented by the school-master's still retaining an interest in the boy throughout his career. To his school, if it be within fairly easy distance, the college man will naturally return. When he has begun his career in the larger world, he may be followed with interest by his head-master, who will hear from him of his engagement or marriage, of his success or failure, and who will not fail to keep in mind the memory of the boy upon his birthday or some other anniversary. On the other hand, the graduates of the school, realizing that they are an integral part of it, will see to it that a sufficient endowment be raised to insure its permanence; they will act as representatives upon its governing body, and by and by, sending their sons to their school, they will again be vitally interested in all that relates to its welfare.

Thus far of the people who have most to do with the destinies of the school and with the activities of the head-master.

There are still two other classes which have to be considered ;

first, the parents. Various are the opinions which men entertain of the relations between the parents and the school. One man, who was displeased with the school for which he had registered his son as candidate, requested that his name be removed from the "list of patrons of the institution." This was an extreme view of the importance of the parent. On the other side, one recalls the description of a school where the masters were wont to remark to one another, when a parent hailed in sight, "Let us get away and let the head-master interview these people; that is what he is paid for." A more human estimate was made by the president of one of our universities who, upon being told that he had greatly improved during his term of office, replied, "No man can come into contact with parents for many years, as I have done, without being a better man for it." And this is the experience of many school-masters, I doubt not. There are limitations and faults which may be fairly laid at the door of the modern American parent. He, or she—a pronoun of either gender may be equally employed—is inclined to be timid in "their" attitude toward the boy. They lack the courage to say "no," a defect which in a former generation was ascribed to the child alone. They have a tendency to overindulge their children, to wish to make life easy for them, a natural result of which is that the children sometimes lack intellectual and moral and physical fiber. Many other limitations might be pointed out, but when they all have been declared, it still is true that the American parent of these days has as profound a love for his child as parents have ever had, that he desires for the child better opportunities than he himself has enjoyed, and that he will co-operate with a master who is honestly working for the highest interests of the boy.

More remote from the school than these and yet of importance in its life are the people who live in the vicinity of the school, fellow-townsmen and neighbors. It is for the head-master to see to it that there shall not spring up any trace of the old feeling of antagonism which originated in England and was transported to this country under the name of "Town and Gown." The school should be ready to recognize its responsibilities to the

dwellers round about. The possession of more abundant power than it need use for itself it may well exercise in establishing missions and boys' clubs, and in joining any movement which makes for the good of the community. There is no inevitable rivalry between an educational institution and the town in which it is situated. American boys of this generation are quickly responsive to the call to service and recognize that a primary element in this is courtesy. I recall an instance where a boy who had got into trouble by riding his bicycle on the sidewalk after being warned by the town constable remarked to the man in the presence of the head-master, "I did not know you were a policeman. I thought you were a tramp." This lack of consideration was quickly atoned for by a considerable fine which was inflicted upon the boy at the insistence of the constable. It is one of the few cases which I can recall where the relations between that school and its neighbors have been strained.

There exists also a certain duty on the part of the head-master to attend educational conferences and to take an active part in them, to lecture or to preach in colleges or other schools, to contribute an occasional article upon some phase of education. Activities of this kind, even though they seem to interfere with the regular labors with which the measure is already heaped up and overflowing, have some value in their influence upon the school. It is undoubtedly good for the members of a school faculty, and the head-master among them, to have some outside interests which will prevent their accepting the fate of becoming pedagogues which the world is prone to fasten upon them. These things, however, are incidental. They form something in the nature of an avocation to men who are summoned to a great calling—a calling which was highly esteemed in the days when education was a smaller thing than it is now. Today it is equal to the greatest of the professions, for in a Christian country the aim of the school-master is nothing less—as one who has been a great educator has remarked—than to help his pupils to become citizens of the commonwealth of Christ.

SOME PRACTICAL HINTS FOR TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO READ GERMAN

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A most important aim in German instruction in this country is to teach students to read, appreciate, and enjoy the works of German literature. Our efforts must be directed toward developing in them such a facility in covering large amounts easily that they will feel encouraged to continue their reading of German books after they leave our care. They must learn to read German without the mediation of English. To reach this end, we must lay our plans carefully and look not for immediate but ultimate results. By the "translation method" the student will, at first, be able to give a more finished recitation for a particular day, but will gain little of the independence and power necessary for his more mature work. To acquire this independence and power, he must read a great deal and pay particular attention to the content of the books read.¹

Each recitation should begin with a discussion of the subject-matter of the material covered at home. This impresses upon the student the fact that the content of what he reads is the important thing. Frequent practice in translation² is indispensable for the first two years;³ very little translation should then be necessary in the third year and practically none in the fourth. This

¹ For a description of the so-called "Inhalts-Methode," "Contents Method," see article entitled, "In wie weit darf man sich beim Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache des Übersetzens ins Englische bedienen?" in the *Monatshefte für deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik* for January and February, 1908.

² Poetry should never be translated. It should not be taken up until the students are far enough advanced to understand and appreciate it as they read, with only an occasional explanation in German.

³ Careful attention to grammar with a thorough drill on forms is a *sine qua non* of language study. An inductive method of teaching grammar in which a synopsis of forms is given every now and then is the most satisfactory. Constant practice in pronunciation, as well as exercises in conversation, and particularly in composition, are indispensable for a knowledge of any living

translation will provide the student with a basic vocabulary with which to work. But not until he has reached the end of his resources in trying to figure out first the general and then the exact meaning in detail of the passage in question, should he ever be permitted to translate.

For the initial work in the material, the instructor should set, for a lesson in the second and third years, for example, a number of pages, more than the student can translate in less than five or six hours, and request that it merely be read over a couple of times for the subject-matter, with the special provision that no dictionary be used in connection with the work.⁴ At the next meeting of the class, the contents of the pages should be discussed and a part of the same material be set for the following lesson, to be worked over and *translated* as well as possible, still without the aid of a dictionary. A familiar word (or phrase) here and there, be it a German one the student knows, or one that reminds him of an English,⁵ French, or Latin word (or Greek if he is so fortunate as to have studied that language) will give him oftentimes the cue to the general content of the passage. Working from these known words and phrases and the mental picture he draws of what appears to be the situation, he divines the meanings of other words and phrases, and gradually the meaning of the whole will stand out clearer and clearer before his mind.⁶ The classroom exercise would consist in showing the

language. The putting of English into German may be of some help in fixing grammatical details in the student's mind. I am convinced that it does not teach him to express his thoughts in German with any degree of readiness and accuracy, which, after all, is the aim of composition work.

⁴It does not suffice to say to a class: "Take the next four pages. Read them over first and then translate," for they won't read them first; they will start in at once to translate them. If, on the other hand, you assign the reading for one lesson, forbidding the use of a dictionary, they will gladly do the work as you desire. The translation, as explained farther on, can be left for the following lesson or two.

⁵A brief exposition of the principles of German word-formation, as well as of the general rules for change of consonants in English and German cognates, would be of considerable value in this work.

⁶This process cannot be better illustrated than by a passage from Spielhagen's *Hammer und Amboss*, I, 311. It is "gerade wie aus einem Nebelmeer auf das wir von einem hohen Berge herabblicken, hie und da einzelne lichte

students how they could have gotten more with the help of the context and their general knowledge of various subjects. This practice of working out the unknown words from the context, from what they might be expected to mean, is similar to that of supplying words that we fail to catch in ordinary conversation in English.

Now the same passage can be set for exact translation with the aid of a dictionary. After a while it will be possible in addition to such practice to have a large amount read merely for the subject-matter. The first few minutes in class can then be spent on hearing a report of the contents of the reading and the major part of the hour would be left for treatment of new material. The class might devote half of this time to working out the content of several pages and the last half to telling what they had learned, or might even spend most of the hour reading, reserving a few minutes at the close for a written summary of the subject-matter. Time so gained could also be advantageously used in discussing the literary aspects of a work, in explaining some especially difficult syntactical phenomena, in reading aloud, or in German conversations about the text.

In asking for an account of the subject-matter, it is perhaps well to have the principal point in the chapter or pages explained first. Then could follow the less important points in the narrative and then the details which in this way will group themselves around the more important facts and be less troublesome for the students to remember. Accuracy, specific answers to questions must be insisted on. If names and dates are given in the story, let the student get them. Instead of saying "a man" or "a servant," let him say "Karl," instead of her aunt "her aunt Rikchen," etc. Have him know exactly where the scene of the story is laid, what season of the year it is, etc.

The teacher might from time to time translate a considerable

Punkte auftauchen, ein sonnebeschienenes Kornfeld, eine Hütte, ein Stück Weges, ein kleiner See mit grasigen Ufern und endlich die ganze Landschaft klar vor uns liegt, bis auf wenige Stellen, über welchen noch graue Streifen sich breiten, die langsamer als die anderen die Bergschluchten aufwärts ziehen" This passage has of course a very different connection in the novel but, as it expresses figuratively what I wish to make clear, I venture to quote it here.

amount of German rapidly, keeping as close to the order of the German words as is possible and requiring the students to follow the text carefully. They will thus get the meaning without any apparent effort. They have no time to think of the translation of individual words or phrases, to hunt for subject and object, and the German word-order seems less strange and foreign to them. Material that the students have already read and summarized would be excellently adapted for this purpose. They know the general line of thought and will find less difficulty in connecting the exact meaning of the words and sentences, as the instructor translates, with the German text, than would be the case if the material were completely new. A certain amount of text that the class has never seen before should, however, also be treated in this manner. It will require a more rigid concentration of mind to follow a text and then there is the added charm and interest of a new story. To relieve the tension on the minds of the students, and banish all apprehensions that so interfere with a calm and normal brain-action, it is best to announce that the class will not be held responsible at examination time for the translation of pages thus treated, but merely for the subject-matter. To insure strict attention, the instructor can interrupt his reading from time to time and ask a student what he thinks the following word or sentence means, expecting the student to know merely from the word "following" what word or sentence is referred to. Whether it is well to have a class translate now and then a lesson into English in the German order is a matter for the individual instructor to decide. It is of distinct value in developing an appreciation of the spirit of German sentence-structure and in teaching one to read German rapidly and easily, but may have a bad influence on one's English.

The teacher must study his class individually and strive to discover what it is that prevents the individual student from grasping the meaning of a passage quickly. It is usually due to the fact that he has not been taught to think. He is accustomed to turn to a dictionary the moment an unknown word meets his eye, without first wrestling with it until he conquers it, or at least is fully certain that he cannot get at its meaning in any

way other than by looking it up. Infinite patience must be exercised, especially during the first month or so of the term, while the pupils are becoming acquainted with the method. They should not be censured even if they are unable to get any idea whatsoever of the content of a passage at first. The teacher is there to show them how they can get it and the harder it is for them, the more necessary and valuable is the instruction. We must inspire the student with faith in his own ability and also, if possible, establish a relation of friendship and confidence between him and his instructor, that will allow him to do justice to himself on every occasion. The teacher with a sarcastic remark or word of censure ever balanced on his tongue will not get his class to disclose what they really know.

Now for a few examples to illustrate the actual workings of such a method. I take them from classroom exercises. The passages selected for illustration are neither the simplest that could be found, nor necessarily the best adapted for illustration, but they will perhaps serve the purpose in hand. A written description of how such work can be carried on is in the nature of the case unsatisfactory and inadequate. The life of oral instruction cannot be reproduced in written words.

Early in the second semester of a three-hour elementary (first-year) course, the following sight passage came up for treatment in class.

Im ersten Augenblick hätte ich geschworen, der Verbacht sei unbegründet, die Dame schuldlos. Aber als ich ruhiger geworden und manche geheimnisvollen, ja unheimlichen Einzelheiten im Wesen der Dame mir wieder vergegenwärtigte, da stiegen auch in mir schwerwiegende Zweifel an ihrer Schuldlosigkeit auf. Mir schauderte.—A. C. Wiesner, *Die schwarze Dame* (Deutsche Noveletten-Bibliothek, Bernhardt, Vol. I, p. 119).

I asked a student to put on the board the words of the passage, whose meanings he knew.⁷ The list ran:

Im ersten Augenblick hätte ich . . . der . . . sei . . . , die Dame—los. Aber als ich ruhiger geworden und manche—vollen, ja un—lichen Einzelheiten im . . . der Dame mir wieder . . . , da . . . auch in mir schwer—. . . an ihrer—losigkeit auf. Mir . . .

⁷ Instead of writing the words on the board, the students could be asked to underline them in their books.

This list gave him no inkling as to the contents of the passage other than that the persons concerned were the lady and the writer. The story had already told that the lady's husband had been murdered and that the authorities had put a question to the narrator of the story, which had indicated quite clearly that the lady herself was thought to be the perpetrator of the deed.

The student was asked whether he had never seen the word "Verdacht" and he could not recall having done so. He was then required to read the preceding paragraph, and found the word there. He then recalled its meaning "suspicion." The meanings of "geschworen" and "unbegründet" were arrived at by analyzing them into their component parts and comparing their roots with English words, viz., "ge-schwor-en," swore; "un-be-gründ-et," ungrounded, and, in connection, with the word "Verdacht," unfounded. So he had made out: "In the first moment I would have sworn that the suspicion was unfounded," and he ought now to have thought at once, it would seem, of the meaning of "schuldlos," especially when he knew that the latter half of the word had the force of "lacking in, less." But he had no idea of its meaning, so the question was put to him. "If a friend said to you, 'In the first moment I should have sworn that the suspicion was unfounded, the lady—,' and on account of some noise outside you lost the following word, catching only its latter half, 'less,' what would you naturally supply?" He could not think of the word. So the question was asked him, "If the suspicion was unfounded, what about the lady?" He answered, "She was innocent." Then "guiltless" occurred to him as the word he should have supplied and he translated, "and the lady was guiltless (or better) innocent." He continued the translation, "But when I had become calmer and many . . . on her innocence (he got this word from "schuldlos" which he had just worked out), I shuddered." "Schauderte" was clear to him from its resemblance to the English. "Now the word 'aber,' but, at the beginning of the sentence suggests what?" the student was asked; and, after some reflection, he answered that, on second thought, the man had his doubts. The word "schauderte" helped strengthen this

opinion. Then he was asked which word in the sentence probably meant "doubt" and he said "Zweifel." "And why?" "Because the context 'an ihrer Schuldlosigkeit' seems to require it." Then he was asked whether "Wesen" suggested any German word and he answered, "Yes, gewesen;" "And the noun would be?" "Being." From the following, "der Dame," he thought of a better translation, namely, "character, nature." "'Auf' suggests what as a prefix?" was the next question, and the reply, "Up." He correctly divined that "Einzelheiten," a noun containing the word "ein" (he had forgotten the meaning of "Einzel"), must signify "single facts," "details." "Schwer," heavy, he knew; and now he could make out this much: "But when I had become calmer and many . . . yes . . . details in the character of the lady came back to me again, heavy doubts of her innocence came up in me ('in my mind,' he added). I shuddered." The subject-matter had now been divined and the translation to a large extent worked out by this one student who was about an average man. The class was called on for the meaning of "geheimnisvoll," "unheimlich," "vergegenwärtigte." A few knew "geheimnisvoll," but no one knew the meaning of "unheimlich" or "vergegenwärtigte." When the connection of "vergegenwärtigte" with "die Gegenwart" was suggested, several students called out that "die Gegenwart" signified "the present," and one said directly that the verb must signify "to make present" and so "call to mind." The translation of "unheimlich" had to be given by the instructor. A careful and exact rendering of the lines was now made by a couple of students and we could proceed to the next passage. This exercise had taken considerable time, but had made the class do some hard thinking. After a few such exercises, the student will need little questioning to bring out what he knows and a larger amount of ground can be covered.

In the second semester of a three-hour, second-year course, we took up Heine. As we did not care to confine ourselves to the "Harzreise," we used Buchheim's selections from Heine's prose much as we regretted the abridgment of the "Harzreise" in this edition. The "Harzreise" is the first selection in this book, but as it is the most difficult, we read it last, after we had gained a

feeling for Heine's style. In this second half-year we were able to read everything in this book except some forty pages, i. e., some hundred and seventy pages, as well as Eichendorff's *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts*, one-hundred and thirty-one pages and Schiller's *Jungfrau von Orleans*, one hundred and seventy-six pages. The same general plan of work as previously indicated was followed. Everything was first read and discussed before any translation was permitted. A large amount of translation was, however, eventually done; all of the "Harzreise," and many other selections in Heine as well as considerable of the *Taugenichts* and some of the *Jungfrau* being so treated. As illustration of the method pursued in class, I will take the passage in Buchheim extending from p. 80, l. 11, to p. 82, l. 5 (*Italien, "Reisebilder" II*).

First the class was asked to read the pages, which they had never seen before, to themselves rapidly and when they had all finished, one student was called upon to tell what he had gotten from the material. His report ran:

Heine felt, in the old city of Trent, as though it were all a dream, as though he had seen all this before, the houses, the old women, the old men and the handsome girls; in fact it all seemed a pretty story which he had read or written. He found himself in the market-place, opposite the ancient cathedral, which he now entered. He speaks of the soft light from the colored windows, of the women on the benches at their prayers, of the contrast between the coolness inside and the fierce heat without. He compares the comfortableness of this church with the lack of comfort of the churches in Protestant North-Germany.

The student had made out the general subject-matter of the passage, but did not know what "Obstfrau" signified other than that it was some kind of a woman. He was also unable to understand the play on words of "Ohrfeige" (p. 81, ll. 4-6): "Vielleicht auch, dacht' ich, ist das ganze wirklich nur ein Traum und ich hätte herzlich gern einen Thaler für eine einzige Ohrfeige gegeben, bloss um dadurch zu erfahren, ob ich wachte oder schlief;" and "Feigen an die Ohren" (ll. 10-12): "Sie begnügte sich damit, mir einige wirkliche Feigen an die Ohren zu werfen." He could not even say what "Feige" meant. Instead of being permitted to look up the words "Obstfrau," "Ohrfeige," and

"Feige" or having them explained by other members of the class, he was asked to read on in the next chapter.

In the first paragraph of this chapter, he made out that Heine met the "Obstfrau" again. "Birnen," p. 83, l. 8, he knew meant "pears;" "Citronen" in the following line, as might have been expected, was taken to signify "citrons" and the word "Orangen" was perfectly clear. "Körbe" had escaped his memory, but the context "Big Körbe with citrons and oranges" showed him the word must mean baskets. Now he had the combination "—woman—pears—baskets of citrons and oranges," and it was clear that "Obstfrau" meant "fruit-woman," "apple-woman." The instructor did not say "yes" or "no" to his explanation of the terms "Citronen" and "Obstfrau," but let him read on through the following paragraph. Here again "Citronen" occurs and in the context, "dass wir die wenigen Citronen, die wir aus Italien bekommen, sehr pressen müssen, wenn wir Punsch machen." The meaning of "Punsch" was clear from its similarity to the English word and from its connection with the expression, "dass wir dann . . . desto mehr Rum zugiessen." Now what is pressed to make punch but lemons? Accordingly the student was sure at once that "Citronen" meant lemons, and the fact that the fruit was named with oranges above, and again in the same paragraph, proved this beyond a doubt.

A few lines farther on appears the word "Früchte" and a little farther yet "das einzige reife Obst, das wir haben, sind gebratene Apfel" occurs. "Reif," ripe, was known, and "Obst" could only mean "fruit" in this connection, as the student correctly divined. Now he was sure that the meaning of "Obstfrau" already surmised, was the proper one.

We retraced our steps to the sentence, p. 81, ll. 8-16; "Obstfrau" being known, the meaning of "Feigen" suggested itself at once. The student really should have known this word at the first reading, as we had had it before, or at least should have figured it out at once from its similarity to the English word.

Now why should this old apple-woman throw figs at Heine? Certainly because of something he had done to offend her, and the word "über" in "über die dicke Obstfrau" suggested to the

student that "hinstolperte" might signify something like "fell." He was asked to pronounce the word aloud and give some rendering other than "fell" that was suggested to him by the sound of the word and he thought at once of "stumbled (over)."

Lines 5-7, "ich hätte . . . schlief," still remained very obscure and the student was requested to translate the sentence beginning with "Vielleicht." He did this as follows: "Perhaps also, I thought, the whole is really only a dream and I would very gladly have given a Thaler for a single . . . to learn by this whether I was awake or asleep. "What should 'Ohrfeige' mean?" was asked. The student pondered for a while. "Something connected with ears," he replied, "for anything connected with figs does not make sense." And what connected with ears would show a man whether he was asleep or awake?" "A box on the ears," he answered. When he was assured that this was the meaning of the word "Ohrfeige," the sentence as well as the whole word-play became at once clear. The word "Ohrfeige" must certainly have occurred before in our reading, but not often; at any rate, it had escaped the student's mind.

By this time the hour was up. The three chapters were set for a home-lesson. The class was requested to translate the pages as well as they could, without consulting a dictionary. At the next meeting of the class, several students were called on to render the passage. The meaning of words they had been unable to work out was supplied by other members of the class and the instructor. The closing exercise of the hour consisted of a careful yet free translation of the lines by the instructor. The work on these few pages had taken up two recitation-hours as well as two hours of home-study. Later in the semester twenty or more pages were at times set for a lesson, the contents being merely discussed, without any attempt being made to work out the meaning of the individual words or sentences.

I will close by giving some testimony of students themselves as to the value they derived from this kind of work. The papers were written during the recitation hour toward the end of the semester last spring in first-, second-, third-, and fourth-year classes. The students were requested to give a frank true state-

ment of what they thought of this method. No definite set of questions was propounded to them as the spontaneous expression of opinions that had developed in their minds in the course of the year was desired. In order to allow them to speak freely and not feel hampered by the fear of making a bad impression on the instructor, the classes were strictly enjoined not to affix their names to their reports. Criticisms of the shortcomings of the method were particularly asked for. If we make all due allowances for the hesitancy of pupils to criticize unfavorably except to one another in private, the results are at least interesting.

Only one out of some sixty papers received was intended for an unqualified condemnation of the method. The reason assigned for preferring the translation method was that "we learn best by forgetting words and then looking them up again in the dictionary." The author of this particular report added that he (or she) "got nothing from our way of treating a German book but the story." Several felt that they experienced a tendency toward inaccuracy in determining the meanings of words, although one of them remarked that he no longer was tempted to "crib." Two students thought they paid too little attention to grammatical details when reading rapidly.

All the rest (fifty-three in number) were favorable. The usual youthful laudatory adjectives, such as valuable, most satisfactory, useful, beneficial, excellent, etc., were of frequent occurrence in the criticisms. But nearly every writer went further than merely to revel in glittering generalities; he expressed his own individual reason for preferring the kind of work we had done. All felt that they got more from this method than from the old translation method. Many stated that they had been skeptical at first, but had been converted. Others emphasized the difficulty of the work at the beginning and the facility they acquired after becoming thoroughly acquainted with the method. One third-year student confessed that at the start he had been unable to get any sense whatsoever from what he read, but that later he could get it all and he even went so far as to affirm that he "can now read German understandingly as fast as he does English." The same statement was on the paper of a second-year student but

with the modification, that he "can read easy German as readily as English."

Many remarked that their German vocabulary increased in size more rapidly when they covered large amounts than when they translated smaller amounts, and what is more, words were remembered better. The dictionary work had the effect of "ruining their memory." A number looked upon the translation method as a benefit to one's English rather than to one's German, and one student asserted that this was not his object in studying German. "The significance of words being caught from their context," as one paper put it, "brings before the mind a picture of the object and not the English equivalent."

Two writers claimed that this work had enabled them to read German references. Eighty per cent. of the students considered the method of particular value in training the mind to think and combine quickly. Several had noticed an improvement in their power of concentration, and a good many drew attention to the fact that they had gained confidence in themselves. One put it that he had lost all fear of new material, that he experienced pleasure in the anticipation of something he had never seen before, that he soon became interested in the narrative and forgot that it was a foreign language that he was reading. Another student expressed himself as follows: "In translating plays, as I formerly did, I had no interest in them whatsoever, whereas in reading them through in German this semester, I was so interested in them that I begrudged every interruption and read them with breathless interest at one sitting. It has given me a desire to read more in German and even re-read what I have read already, whereas, after translating a German book, I have put it in the farthest corner of the bookshelf and vowed never to open it again."

Nearly all spoke of a marked improvement in their ability to read understandingly without translating, and a number added that they could translate at sight even better after this kind of work than after constant translation. Some mentioned that they now thought in German while they read, but that translation forced their thoughts back into English molds. A number felt

that they could appreciate better the relative significance of points in a story, whereas the attention in the translation method was oftentimes drawn away to details and important facts were lost. As one student put it: "My impressions of a book read in this way are much clearer and more comprehensive. . . . It gives me an opportunity to grasp the works in their entirety." Another wrote: "Reading a drama through connectedly gives me a general idea of the whole and I do not get this by translating a few pages a day. I think then of the individual word and not of the whole. I get the atmosphere of a drama by reading it through rapidly. It is almost as though it were being presented on the stage. If one does not know every word's specific meaning, he can't help feeling its significance in connection with the rest."

Some papers mentioned that by reading so much more of the works of an author, Schiller in this instance, they got a broader view of his activity and learned to "love him." A good many had acquired some feeling for the beauties of linguistic expression, for style, that translating had not developed. Nearly everyone remarked that he found reading German more enjoyable and felt such a strong interest in the language that he desired to go deeper into it. Several were sufficiently encouraged to pick up German magazines in the reading-room of the library and read them for pleasure, and two had read books during the year that were not required for the course. Some students from each of the four years' classes announced their intention of reading German books during the ensuing summer. In fact a greater interest in German life and literature had been awakened in almost every case.

Are not these the results we are striving for in the teaching of German reading?

A SUGGESTED INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN ENGLISH LITERATURE

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So to teach English literature that the pupil may be stimulated to the reading of good books is one of the most difficult, as it is one of the most important problems in secondary education. Most teachers have at last discarded the "compendium" and the "epitome," mere literary cellulose squeezed dry of all substance and nutriment; but, unfortunately, there has been substituted for them, too often, nothing but scraps of indigestible "criticism." The new way is even more futile than the old; and, if the only alternative to facts at second hand is to be theories and opinions at second hand, let us, by all means, choose the lesser evil by clinging to the old "compendium." The average pupil will be as little interested in critical pottering as in biographical twaddle; and neither leads to a love of literature.

The compendium method and the (so-called) critical method of teaching literature fail of the desired end because they isolate the subject with which they deal and identify books with nothing under the sun excepting the individuals who produced them. Whereas the book-writer is of little consequence in comparison with his books; and books should be studied, not as isolated creations, but as landmarks and way-signs of the time in which they were written. Literature is the flower of history; but to know, to appreciate, to love this blossoming, one must know the plant from which it sprang. To drag a pupil, therefore, who knows not English social and economic history, back to Beowulf, and to push him thence through the, to him, meaningless wastes of early English literature is, we now understand, a process as useless as it is distressing. We do not perceive so clearly, perhaps, that the reversed process, by which he is pushed backward from modern "criticism" to Saxon or Norman or Renaissance "begin-

nings," is scarcely more effective and is even less logical. While the first task requires of the pupil little (for the passing of examinations) except powers of memory and an ability to keep awake, the second presupposes a historical insight rare even among collegians, a critical sense that comes only with maturity, and a grasp of style that must wait upon slow cultivation.

Two things are necessary to interest an average pupil in any subject: the course of study must be based upon what he already knows, and it must be put into relationship with subjects which arouse him. The only study directly related to literature with which the ordinary pupil who enters the high school is familiar is American history; the only topics which, as a rule, engage his interest are the events of the day. Upon these slight and rather inconvenient mental pegs, therefore, we must hang his study of English literature. We must begin this subject—whose right beginning is so difficult and so essential—by tracing the growth of literature in the United States, by showing the parallelism of that growth to our political and social progress, and by making plain how large a factor literature has been and always will be in human history. In so doing, I believe, such an appreciation of good books and such a love for their study will be aroused in most pupils that they will be ready for an intelligent and receptive acquaintance with the larger literature of Great Britain.

The following outline of work, based upon the use of American as the first step in English literature, is, of necessity, not only tentative but crude. It must, in actual practice, be greatly modified; it must, under all conditions, be flexible. Its general drift should be adapted to the prevailing temper of each class and it should be subdivided and individualized to meet the tastes and aptitudes of single pupils. The teacher must be enthusiastic, must have the historical as well as the critical sense fully developed, must possess the knowledge and skill necessary to a graphic summing-up of books. Indeed, the success of this course of instruction is peculiarly dependent upon the personality of the instructor. Its value rests, too, upon the thoroughness and saneness of the teaching in United States history which has been

given in the grammar schools. It is essential, to be more explicit, that this instruction shall have dealt with the social and economic rather than with the military and diplomatic events of our history, that it shall have considered impulses and measures rather than wars and men. A pupil properly taught in the history of the United States ought to know, upon entering the high school, the causes as well as the details of our industrial and political growth, the foundation as well as the fact of our democracy, the evolution as well as the chronology of our national progress.

A pupil so prepared should be able to cover easily in two years a course in American literature based upon the following skeleton of work which, for the sake of simplicity, is put in mandatory form. This scheme presupposes that only few books, or parts of books, will be read in class, that biographical details will be studied only so far as they markedly influenced an author's work, that condensation of thought, of speech, of writing, are to be developed as rapidly as possible in the pupil, that all his reading out of school is to be in the line of his classwork, and that a good public or school library is readily accessible.

Examine the pupils, individually, to ascertain if every one of them has firmly in mind an outline of the growth of the United States. If not, review the subject, pointing out the salient phases of national progress. Make sure that the students have a mental picture of the social conditions of the Colonies, that they appreciate the period of comparative mental degeneracy which intervened between, roughly speaking, 1675 and 1750, and that they understand the causes of the Revolutionary War.

Calling attention to the early founding of colleges and schools, show why the Colonial literature was, necessarily, either theological or narrative. Read extracts from Edwards, from the *Magnalia*, from Winthrop's *Journal*. Interest some of the pupils, if possible, in a study (outside the classroom) of the Colonial chronicles. Give practice in the writing of narrative. Read in class, rapidly, portions of Franklin's *Autobiography*.

Sketch the rise of political literature and its close adherence to the forms of theological writing. Study the beginnings of the

newspaper, comparing the *News Letter* or the *Centinel* with the modern dailies. Call attention to the flood of pamphlets and show their relationship to the modern periodical. Read, in class, certain of the simpler *Federalist* papers and arouse individual interest, if possible, in the literature of the Constitution. Show the use of invective, exaggeration, and other rhetorical qualities peculiar to debate. Encourage the impartial discussion of political questions, avoiding mere wordy fencing.

Make clear the reasons for the modern decay of letter-writing, emphasizing the importance of a good epistolary style. Read certain letters of Washington's, of Jefferson's, and from the *Diplomatic Correspondence*. Give careful practice in letter-writing.

Trace the growth of oratory. Show the necessities that called it into being and its connection with the pamphlet. Study some of the orations of Henry, Webster, Everett, and Sumner. Compare, to some extent, their methods of persuasion. Give practice in abstracting, by requiring pupils to condense a familiar oration; also in expansion, by making them develop an oration from a simple list of facts.

Show the rise of an enduring American literature with the advent of the native romance. Demonstrate the influence of environment by contrasting Irving and Cooper with Hawthorne. Show that the strength and originality of these authors came from their use of native material. Read, in class, portions of the *Sketch Book* and of the *House of the Seven Gables*. Urge the reading, out of school, of the *Leatherstocking Tales* and of those romances by Hawthorne that are based upon American life.

Trace, as far as possible, the rise of transcendentalism out of the peculiar conditions in New England, its expression in Brook Farm (*Blithedale Romance*), and its best fruitage in Emerson. Read, in class, portions of the *Conduct of Life*, and try to arouse an interest in similar essays. Contrast the social teaching of Emerson with the individualism of Thoreau, if the class be competent to grasp it.

Explain that the conditions in the United States, the engrafting of an old civilization upon a rich, new country, could scarcely

fail to produce such a group of nature poets as we possess. Study Bryant, Longfellow, and Whittier. Read shorter poems of each and make obligatory, if possible, the reading, outside, of *Evangeline*, *Hiawatha*, and *Legends of New England*. Discuss, broadly, poetic forms and the reasons for poetry. Endeavor to interest the pupils in this, but do not drive them to it.

Demonstrate the influence of the transcendentalists and poets upon the anti-slavery agitation. Read, in class, portions of the *Biglow Papers* and some of Whittier's anti-slavery hymns. Show the importance, at this crisis, of our fondness for oratory. Read one or more speeches of Garrison and Phillips. Explain the influence of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, emphasizing the point that the value of a book may come from its opportuneness quite as much as from its intrinsic merit.

Deal with the historians: Bancroft, Hildreth, Palfrey, Prescott, Motley, Parkman, as fully as time and the temper of the class warrant. If a critical reading of them, or of some of them, out of school, can be brought about, the main object will be attained. Warn the pupils against rhetorical narrative and teach them, if possible, how to sift facts from theories in historical reading.

Explain why with the close of the Civil War a new era in our literature began. Show that it is now in a transition state toward cosmopolitanism. Show the influence of our peculiar humor, studying especially Holmes, Bret Harte, and "Mark Twain," as types. Trace, as far as may be, the effect, on the one hand, of our journalistic spirit; on the other, of our fondness for self-analysis. Touch lightly upon current writers and emphasize the necessity of perspective in the forming of correct judgments. Guide the pupil's outside reading in the books of today. Help him to discriminate between the permanent and the ephemeral.

Such a course as has been outlined cannot fail, when developed by a good teacher possessing literary insight, to reach in some measure all those pupils in whom it is possible to arouse any interest. Many boys and girls are wholly lacking in the comprehension of books, and upon such the teacher's time is thrown away. They ought to be dropped from the course in

literature, if not, indeed, from the high school itself. No method could be devised by which their eyes would be unsealed. To the majority of pupils, however, this introductory course may well serve for that all-important first step which, rightly taken, makes later steps easy and increasingly delightful. Only when boys and girls, young men and women, shall understand that literature is an important factor in civilization, only when they shall learn to distinguish good thoughts from poor thoughts, solid writing from tawdry writing, will the swelling tide of bad books be stayed. Were our secondary schools to find some way of teaching literature so that it would penetrate and permeate the pupil's life, such a social leaven would be set at work that we should no longer have cause to sigh for real culture, to apologize for the newspapers, and to blush at the contents of the railway bookstands.

RECONSTRUCTION OF HISTORY FOR TEACHING PURPOSES¹

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The present age is calling on education to do two things for every child in the United States:² give him a vocation in life, and an understanding of the society in which he lives. In this latter undertaking on the part of education history work must be made to have a very important part. It must get farther away from the traditional conception and treatment which places the work in our schools on a disciplinary and cultural basis only. The sooner we can banish the polite-information idea from our history study the better off we will be. We must substitute for it the idea that history gives useful information, useful because it helps throw light on the problems of our times, or is a study of those problems directly. We want men and women who can tell where our chariot of state is going by knowing the meaning of the tendencies of the times. We want them to know how to vote in a national campaign on the tariff question because they understand what the relation of the tariff to themselves and the national life is. We want them to understand the political system under which they live, in spirit and machinery, well enough to be able to decide whether their rights among men are being subserved or subverted, and, if subverted, to have some notion of remedies. We want them to get larger visions of social equality and social justice as against industrial exploitation and political deception, to burn with enthusiasm for the rights of man, to have ideals of a better society and faith in social progress.

Since history holds such a large place in the schools it must be held accountable for using this extensive and expensive time

¹ An address delivered at a meeting of the North Dakota State History Teachers' Association.

² See the writer's article "Sociological Warrant for Vocational Education," *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1908.

in the life of the child to secure directly practical results. It is largely a case of history or nothing, for history is about the only study now in the schools which extensively occupies this field.

Any criticism which is made of history work done in our schools must be in view of the facts. The facts are something like these: First, there is a deplorable ignorance of vital social matters on the part of our citizenship, notwithstanding their study of history as given. Second, there is a hatred of the study in the schools due to the dry synoptical and memoritor method of teaching. Third, in history examinations for teachers in various states more applicants fail, overwhelmingly so, than in any other subject. All of these things are true in the Northwest and I think in the country as a whole.

In explanation of these results we may say they are partly due to poor teaching and partly to poor texts. And since most of our work in this country is done by means of textbooks it looks as if the whole thing might be closely connected with the texts. Of course there are cases of poor teachers which a text, however good, could not redeem. But we cannot explain the large results spoken of by means of these cases to any great extent. I have located the reason chiefly in the defects of the textbooks in use.

The first defect lies in the kind of content or subject-matter selected and embodied in the texts, and a study of the matter has led me to conclude that the writers have had little or no perception of the comparative value of the material for cause-and-effect purposes. Instead of testing their material by the criterion, What is most determining? and, What are the really greatest episodes? matter has been placed in the books because it has been the fashion of previous history writers to put such and such topics in. In other words, our history for schools has been on a traditional basis rather than on a rational. It has been chiefly military and political only, until recently, and it has handled these things in a lifeless, merely enumerative manner. And while recently some considerable social material of another kind has been put in, it has remained aloof from the other as a kind of outside spectator. If I had to formulate a criterion to serve as a guide for history purposes in general I should say this: Empha-

size only such episodes and conditions as have had a very perceptible influence in determining our present institutions and organizations. I have often wished I could confront some of the writers of our history texts with that formulation pointed at a lot of stuff they have placed in their books, and could have power to make them attempt to justify their incorporations.

There is also a great defect in the texts in that they devote too much time to events remote in time and too little to those which are near. Our histories have commonly proceeded after the spirit of the statement the philosopher Hegel made relative to the Chinese: A Chinaman is first good for something when he is dead. So our textbook makers have supposed that only dead history is good history and the deader the history the better. If it was a matter of general history they would spend most of the time on ancient history; and if either modern or ancient were to be omitted it would be the modern. If it was a case of American history the colonial would get the benefit of the greater time as compared with the national; and some books seemed to think that this present end of our national history was hardly worth mentioning. Both kinds of procedure are wrong. The present is the only time worth anything for the average man, and the past should be given him only in so far as it is made to bear a vital relation to the social situation now confronting him. The average man gets only a little time to give to the study of social matters and he should be led to those which are important to him as directly as possible.

The third defect of texts is in the matter of organization. I should say that most of our histories show a momentous lack of organizing principle. They are mere jumbles of things. I have in mind a text written for secondary schools by one of the reputed historians of our country which is a mere epitome of all the incidents which have in any way got connected with our national career. It is about the best illustration of the original chaos of matter that I can think of. It contains over 600 topics. These topics, in their arrangements, have no relation to each other as a general thing. They are strung together as they are just because their events happened in that order. It is a mere

chronology, not history. It has no indications of thought and rationality.

We have scores of books about as bad in elementary, secondary, and even college work. The writers do not evince that they know what history study is for. Even if it were for disciplining the reason they would fail because the rational element is absent. And I judge that these shortcomings are present in so many cases because history-study has been regarded as a means of getting a certain kind of polite information.

Reconstruction of history for better teaching purposes would naturally fall along the lines of the criticisms which are made. This reconstruction must either be made by the teachers of history, as they take up the work with the classes, or it must be made by the text-writers. And, as I have remarked, since we teach mostly by texts, we have to think that the writers will have to do the reconstructing.

First, the merely traditional matter should be eliminated. I should work my criterion of value here for all it is worth as it relates to the matter or content. According to my criterion anything is in the merely traditional class which has not quite visibly affected our current of development. By this standard I should relegate to the rubbish heap much of the matter relative to discoveries and explorations, about all which relates to the record of single colonies, much under the head of colonial wars and Indian wars, many of the events leading up to the Revolutionary War. In the national period I would cut out much that has been put in relative to national presidential campaigns, election accounts and administrative events; a large part of the military records in the way of detailing single battles and unimportant campaigns; all the so-called literary history because we have literature in the schools apart from history; much that has been introduced of an intricate nature under foreign affairs in the period following the beginning of our present constitutional government; and much of the merely political reconstruction chronicle. By means of eliminating this material much of which is inherently worthless and uninteresting, and for our national development is inconsequential,

we would gain much-needed time either for better historical matter or for the introduction of the vocational lines into our schools. Other of our subjects besides history must undergo a like surgical operation for the same reasons.

The second process in reconstruction is the incorporation of material of a more vital nature in the place of that eliminated. To demonstrate what this would be and how it should be worked out would be to write a text. About all I can hope to do is to indicate some of the more important things commonly omitted or left undeveloped. In the pre-national period there should be a larger development of the economic causes of the discovery of America, and of the so-called Revolutionary War. The latter in particular is still undeveloped in the best of our school histories. The only place I find adequate treatment of this phase of the struggle for separation is in industrial and economic histories. Another colonial matter not enough developed is the development of religious toleration and the beginnings and growth of our American system of entire separation of church and state. Any one who cares for freedom of thought must be sensible of the advantages of the American system over the old system of state religion and this is emphasized by the fact that the biggest struggles for human emancipation right now are going on in Europe to put those states on the American basis. There is one place in colonial history I could wish for an incorporation of a treatment of the formation of our national life, which is entirely omitted from our histories. No one thinks it worth while to explain that our union was only made possible because the thirteen colonies had more things in common, had more similarities, than they had differences. In fact I would challenge anyone to give a historical instance of thirteen states which were unlike in race, language, political and social institutions, literature, religion, and traditions, ever getting together and forming a perpetual union, even under the stress of a common enemy. This is the fundamental set of facts in explanation of the formation of the nation, the union cannot be rationally explained without them, yet they are not mentioned, much less developed in our texts.

In the race for the possession and control of America, there should be some development given to the consequent significance of the outcome for civilization, and especially for American civilization. Fiske called the capture of Quebec the turning-point in modern history. He may not have been correct but it was the culmination of an unusually important event.

A more adequate treatment of the industrial and political system which prevailed at the time of the struggle for independence than is now given should be made. A good all-around study of existing society at that time would be far more valuable than the attempt to detail the successive events in all the various colonies. Particularly, I think the home and domestic system of production, which then prevailed, in its significance for labor, consumption, and possibilities and restrictions of life, should have an extended treatment. A vivid description of the productive processes which were carried on, on the plantations under slave life, on the small farms in New England by men and women under their primitive division of labor, of nail-making, shoe-making, cloth- and garment-making, etc., would go far to make the life of that period real and to give a grasp of the interdependence of the various divisions of labor on each other.

In our national period I shall make a general statement and say that I think our histories are deplorably weak in their development of the economic background of our national life, and in showing the rational significance of that part of the economic matter which is introduced. It is a stupendously significant thing to me that our young people can and do get out of from one to four years in history-study without hardly knowing there has been an industrial revolution, and without knowing its vast significance for human life. Yet who could explain in any scientific way the factory system along with our present system of producing material goods in factories and on farms, and the consequent difference it makes for life today as compared with life before as seen in colonial times and on the frontiers, the appearance of new transportation and communication agencies, of the great daily, weekly, and periodical press, of great cities on every hand, of the appearance of gigantic organizations of

labor and of capital, with their consequent conflicts and problems, and of many other phenomena, without taking up in an expansive and systematic manner the industrial revolution. It has made a new order of things and I am free to declare that you can give no history during the last hundred years in any civilized land without dealing with this subject, for it was truly revolutionary in that it transformed society in spirit and organization in fundamental ways, and there is not a phase of life that has not and is not now being affected by it. It is the machine age we are in, the age of inventions. This distinguishes our age from all preceding ages even more than do our political peculiarities, not only in the fact that it exempts men from doing much of the drudgery connected with production by their own muscular power, but in the fact that it has specialized and differentiated society more in a century than had been done in all preceding ages by all the agencies men had previously devised, and further, in the fact that the special forms our problems of society take today have their explanation in the appearance of these revolutionizing inventions.

Another indication of the short treatment of economic matters in our history is the fact that our students have little conception of the causes, nature, and importance of a great social phenomenon which has occurred every ten or twenty years in our national life, and that each time it occurs shakes our social fabric to its foundations. I mean what we call panics and depressions. It is an educational abortion that we should spend from one to four years in studying, or studying about, human society and yet turn out people for citizenship who do not know the common causes of one of the most ordinary and important events. Why not write a chapter on panics in the text, describe and treat all our important panics in such manner that the similarities and consequent explanations would appear, so that the man and woman would be in sight of giving a scientific account of them and could help to shape human affairs for their control? Is it because the text-makers do not understand the subject or because it might destroy the artistic symmetry of the book? But if history is of any use it must give such an account

of affairs that we may understand and so be able to control them. Our histories, if they are going to occupy the field, must do the necessary things.

In the same manner we would need to give an adequate economic account of the rise of monopolies, of their significance for life, of their causes in the peculiarities of the times, of their extent into the various lines of transportation, manufacture, distribution. We would need to show the connection between modern business life and government, so that the citizen might see the exact place and function of government in organized society. I venture to say that most of our people have no sort of notion as to what the legitimate function of government is, and, consequently, are all at sea as to where government should begin and end in relation to business of all sorts.

A great uncultivated gap in our political history exists relative to our political parties. I have found few pupils from the schools who have come to me who have had an idea of the meaning of parties in our history. They are just things to study about but they do not mean anything to them. I think it is easy to maintain that the place to begin to study our government is with the parties, and that we cannot know much about why our political history takes the course it does without seeing that those organizations which control the avenue to governmental positions control the government and government policies. In other words, we have to get down to a study of party organization by means of which they control nominations and elections. This is more indispensable as a matter of understanding our government than a study of the constitution of the United States.

As to the matter of organization of history-material into textbook shape, a great deal ought to be said. Of course the average teacher can do little more than reproduce the matter of the text in just the shape in which it is placed in the text. The chop-feed method of treatment of our histories in general, therefore, is a bad method of class presentation. The logic of events is lost because of the hop-skip-and-jump procedure from the political to the industrial, then to the religious, to the literary, etc., and this every ten years. There is a discontinuity that is

bewildering. History is shot full of gaps. Teacher nor pupil puts things together in a causal way.

In my estimation our texts would do better if they would pursue what I think of as the continuous development method of presenting matters. I mean to take up one line of interest or activities and carry it through the course of a whole epoch or period without interjecting between its parts in the course of the period other kinds of interests and activities. I have tried this and found it works in an admirable fashion. To illustrate, I will name the topics I carried through continuously from 1789 to the Civil War, or such as extended through the whole of the period: Organization of government and parties; struggle for commercial independence; westward expansion of territory, population, and transportation facilities; revolutionizing inventions and processes; political parties and doctrines; establishment and growth of protective tariff; some problems in finance and banking; development of the slavery issue; chief international problems.

And when we reflect, we find that this continuous development of a single series of events or interests is just the sort of knowledge the citizen needs. He needs to know the tariff history in itself, the financial history in itself, party history in itself, and so on. He must know it this way in order to understand it. If it is not developed that way for him in school he is likely never to develop it, and, hence, always to be ignorant.

The briefest kind of sketch of this matter deserves that some attention should be paid to adaptation of history to the different ages or educational stages. Mainly, I think, the adjustment should consist in pedagogical devices rather than in the matter, although I am aware that the exponents of the concentric circle view have been led to admit that in covering the circles of history, each time in a more exhaustive manner, really new material is given. Yet I maintain that the object is the same for all ages, namely, to give as good a knowledge of the working of the child's own society as the stage of mental development will permit. Essentially the same matter of community life must be given in order to secure this object, although the form which the material

takes will vary widely. A knowledge, in the larger aspects and in the relatedness of our social processes, for instance, can be given quite young children so that they can see the work and significance of mills, railroads, telegraph, farmers, schools, government, and so on, for our lives. The same material later on is more systematized and put under the reign of principles. But in each stage we should avoid wasting time on mere frills under the mistaken idea that the child cannot grasp vital social facts.

MODERN EDUCATION IN JAPAN

TATSU HORI¹

During the last forty years Japan has been opening her gate to the civilization of the West and for that reason she has come to produce changes which have meant remarkable development in all phases of her social life. During the period of Europe's and America's striving for culture, Japan sat idly dreaming in self-contentment in a very imperfect state. Having once appreciated the results of her open policy she adopted western civilization with wonderful rapidity. The Japanese, in a little more than a half-century, although still having much to learn, have reached a point of appreciation of modern culture, the rapture of which it took the occidentals centuries to reach.

Popular lectures on science, philosophy, and religion given by professors in colleges and universities; daily papers, periodicals, and magazines, discussing popular and technical subjects, which are in general widely read; girls' sewing clubs and cooking associations; mothers' circles, industrial conferences, and entertainments for the children; these constitute the present enterprises for the purposes of social education. Christian and Buddhist philanthropies are not unknown there as well. On the other hand, education is carried on efficiently at public expense in the schools, and this opportunity is eagerly sought by the youth.

The idea of public education in Japan has grown out of regard for the state, and the individual is educated because he will make a more capable subject when thus trained. Japan stands loyal to the civic state and the imperial household. Though the person is subordinated to the state, yet his individuality is not snuffed out nor are his ambitions checked unless he disregards the public welfare in not respecting the rights of others as granted by the state. A first consideration with the

¹ Revised by Rolland M. Stewart, assistant in education, State University of Iowa.

Japanese is their patriotism and loyalty to the imperial household. It will be seen then that the purpose of their education is to make good subjects rather than good citizens. There has never been any friction between the Mikados and their peoples, which indicates the absence of despotism and the general good will of the Mikados. The Mikado is not worshiped as a divine being, as being endowed with absolute right, but rather is he esteemed and loved by his subjects because of his interest in them. The history of Japan reveals the close relationship between ruler and people. To the minds of the Japanese, this close relationship of ruler and people has strengthened them to withstand the assaults of outside nations on the one hand, and has brought co-operation in the development of internal resources on the other.

Appropriate rights and liberties are granted by constitutions and laws to the subjects so that there is little of internal discord. In April, 1868, the year following the enthronement of the present emperor, the following memorable oath was sworn, known in history as the "Imperial Oath of Five Articles:"

(1) Deliberative assemblies shall be established, and all measures of government shall be decided by public opinion; (2) all classes, high and low, shall unite in carrying out vigorously the plan of the government; (3) officials, civil and military, and all common people shall, as far as possible, be allowed to fulfil their just desires so that there may not be any discontent among themselves; (4) absurd customs of former times shall be broken through, and everything shall be based upon the just and equitable principle of nature; and (5) knowledge shall be sought for throughout the whole world, so that the welfare of the empire may be promoted.

Then, in 1890, the "Imperial Edict on Education" was published. The translation into English is inadequate to bring out the profound meaning of the original. It reads as follows:

Know ye, our subjects:

Our imperial ancestors have founded our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting, and deeply and firmly implanted virtue. Our subjects, ever united in loyal and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of our Empire, and herein lies the source of our education. Ye, our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourself in

modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop intellectual faculties and perfect moral powers; furthermore, advance public good and promote common interests; always respect the constitution and observe laws; should emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the state; and guard and maintain the prosperity of our imperial throne coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrations of the best traditions of your forefathers.

The way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by our imperial ancestors, to be observed alike by their descendants and the subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence in common with you, our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue.

[Imperial Sign Manual] [Imperial Seal]

This educational edict is read on Commencement Day or at some solemn convocation by the principals of all institutions throughout the empire. It is usually followed by the national anthem which, written in English by Chamberlain, reads as follows:

A thousand years of happy life be thine!
Live on, my lord, till what are pebbles now,
By age united, to great rocks shall grow,
Whose venerable sides the moss doth line.

Only a few schools kept in old style by federal lords were to be found forty years ago; but today there are twenty-eight government schools, 27,156 public schools, and 1,678 private schools. Education in the lower primary is compulsory and if children are able they attend kindergarten before that. The work of the lower primary begins at seven years of age. This is the only grade in the whole system that all take. At the close of the lower primary some go to the high school, others to the higher primary. It is not advantageous and is often impossible to change one's plans after having left the lower primary. The courses of study are arranged to prepare the individual in harmony with his choice of career. The different grades of school, with the years spent in each, is illustrated in the outline on the following page.

Those who are able to continue in school up to the high school finish the lower primary and then enter the lowest class of the high school. Those who are not able to keep up studies through

the high school, may receive the higher primary if they wish; for those who enter high schools have in prospect to continue their higher education. Here, then, the course is more a fitting school; and in the higher primary, the course taken by those not expecting to continue educational study is more informational and general. Also one may see from the outline how those finishing the high school may go to the higher school which fits directly for the university, or the higher normal school, or to any other of the schools in the list. What one will be allowed to do will be determined always by the preparation which has been made.

Kindergarten	I or 2
1. Primary	} Lower 4 Higher 4
2. High school	
Normal school	5
3. Higher school	3
College	3
Higher normal school	3
Industrial school	3
Commercial school	3
Agricultural school	3
4. University	3

Boys and girls are trained together in the primary school, but segregation is the order in the high schools and colleges. Further, women are not allowed entrance to the university. There is only one ladies' university in Tokyo, which, of course, is not as strong as the men's universities. The idea of segregation has obtained in Japanese education because of the difference of aim in education for the different sexes. To meet this difference in aim there is a difference in courses of study. Girls study sewing, cooking, flower-arrangement, etiquette in serving tea, and the boys devote themselves to military discipline and other physical training, in addition to the subjects common to both. The Chinese language and Old Japanese are studied as classics, while either English, German, or French is required as a foreign language. An association has been formed to seek to prune away from the Japanese language the Chinese characters which form a considerable part, partly because of national pride and partly because these characters are, as a rule, difficult to master; also because

they are out of harmony with the forty-eight letters of the alphabet, which are phonetic.

In the government normal schools tuition is free, but in all others a tuition is charged. Graduates of private schools are not recognized as regular teachers until they pass the government examination; however, some high schools and colleges supported by private funds are classed by the Department of Education with the government schools and thus their graduates are recognized by the government. In these schools as well as in all government schools, the textbooks used must be officially sanctioned by the Department of Education. There is uniformity of class periods, of hours for opening school, of hours for closing school, of recesses, etc., throughout the realm. These regulations vary with the grade of school, e. g., the length of recitation period is longer in the higher schools. All exercises pass off in an orderly way by word of command. The pupils hold their teachers in great respect as one would suppose.

One of the imperial universities has 7,000 students, and one of the private universities 9,000. In high schools and colleges there are 500 students on the average. From thirty-five to forty pupils is the number allowed in one classroom and a certain number of square cubits is required for each pupil. The ventilation of the room, the size and position of the windows, the height and structure of desks and chairs are closely examined. In primary and secondary schools two or three pupils are appointed each day to look after their own classrooms, closing and opening the windows, furnishing chalk on teachers' desks, cleaning blackboards, and scrubbing their recitation rooms. Thus they are taught how to look after things, how to improve themselves by daily observations and instructions. Also, flower-beds are provided within the school grounds where children sow seeds and care for the plants and thus learn how to cultivate them, incidentally learning the beauty of nature.

Among the numerous benefits resulting from the adoption of western civilization is that of the physical emancipation so evident to the Japanese themselves. In their earlier history, before the introduction of Chinese civilization, they were large

and robust. In the museum at Tokyo are some relics of ancient armor and costumes which even the largest of Americans could not use, and there are ladies' dresses displayed, worn by ladies twice the size of the average Japanese lady of today. About the third century of the Christian Era Confucianism governed the thought and life of Japan, imposing absurd restrictions in manners and customs; social distinctions were firmly fixed and the rights and liberties of the individual minimized; liberty and education came to be denied to women. Nobility in time oppressed the lower classes, and laws were fixed which controlled the daily life in striking detail, such as what to eat, how to cook, how to dress, and how to build houses, the violation of which cost not only the lives of the offenders but of the entire family. There arose occasionally some heroic men and women who sacrificed their lives for the sake of revolution, largely to no avail. They were compelled to sit on their bended knees, talk in whispers, etc. Women were even more miserable. The result of these unreasonable restrictions, generation after generation, was to produce men and women with weak and deformed bodies and minds.

At present boys and girls receive physical training throughout their school training. All kinds of modern gymnastics and athletics are prevalent and the schools and colleges are quite generally supplied with teachers who have been graduated from government normal schools of gymnastics. Matched games and contests are quite as common there as elsewhere. Even the most conservative parents are interested in the school education of their children, especially in the physical education, and they allow great liberty to their children in this respect. Not only in schools but also in public gardens there are furnished gymnastic apparatus, tennis lawns, etc. for public use and enjoyment.

The young are taught to live a noble life not merely for their own sake, but for the sake of their brothers in the near neighborhood, who still remain in darkness. There is great enthusiasm among those who have been fortunate enough to receive an education to carry the message of light throughout the realm and their regard for America is always expressed in the kindest way.

SYNTAX IN CAESAR

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II. THE USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

In a former article¹ the writer undertook to discuss from the standpoint of a teacher the problem of case construction in Caesar. It was shown how comparatively small is the number of really different case uses, and suggestions were given for making clear to the pupil the fundamental distinctions and the relations existing between these uses. There was presented, in illustration, a chart of case uses for a single book of Caesar.

If such a method of presenting case constructions has been found helpful, it may be said that some such plan for dealing with the uses of the subjunctive in Caesar has been found all but absolutely necessary. The unsystematic treatment of the subjunctive in the great majority of first books and grammars makes it next to impossible for the pupil to get anything like a comprehensive view of the subject. The table shown (with this paper) is a compilation from five classroom charts, each covering one book, except that Book I is divided at the end of chap. xxix, the remaining chaps. xxx to liv being read after the completion of Book IV and is here treated as a separate unit.

One important fact is at once apparent. The subjunctive is not found in independent sentences in Caesar I-IV, but is used only in various subordinate clauses. This limitation is of course due to the narrative, indirect-quotation form of the writing. The problem of mood usage is thus greatly simplified and attention is concentrated where attention is most needed. The uses of the subjunctive in wishes, exhortations, or conditions, as such, have no place in Caesar, and the corollary of that proposition would certainly exclude elaborate treatment of these uses from prose composition books based on Caesar.

¹ Published in the *School Review*, March, 1909.



The scheme for the uses of the subjunctive in Caesar therefore resolves itself into a classification of those dependent clauses which have their verbs in the subjunctive. Here, as in case constructions, the aim is to get the pupil to group related uses. The first great division made is between those subjunctives expressing the various *non-fact* modal ideas for which the English translation is a subjunctive, or equivalent verb phrase, or an infinitive, and those subjunctives expressing *fact* the English equivalent of which is the indicative. This fundamental division is indicated on the chart by the heavy line.

Within these groups, as indicated, clauses are classified according to form and specific use. As was pointed out in the discussion of case constructions, categories are set up not only to accord with well-defined distinctions within the Latin itself but whenever the English idiom differs materially from the Latin. A case in point is the subjunctive in the Clause of Purpose, which is clearly volitive in Latin, while the English mood for such a clause is potential, and such a subjunctive is commonly translated, if a finite form is used at all, by a verb phrase with the auxiliary "may" or "might." It is very unfortunate for the clear understanding of the subjunctive as a whole that so many first books begin their treatment of the mood with this irregularly translated Clause of Purpose, with the tragic result that many pupils come to regard this use as normal and ever after say or try to say "may" or "might" every time they encounter a subjunctive, even when a modicum of linguistic sense would compel the use of the proper auxiliary or still more often the plain English indicative.² A much more common and much more typical use

²The following beautiful specimen of the translator's art, taken from Clark's *Interlinear Caesar*, Book IV, chap. xi, is an illustration in point (the italics are mine): "When Caesar *might be distant* from the enemy not more than twelve thousands of paces, the ambassadors return to him, as it had been appointed: who having met him on the march, did pray greatly he would not advance farther. When they *might have obtained* not that, they did request that he would send before to those horsemen, who *might have preceded* the troop, and would prohibit them from battle: and that he would make power to themselves of sending ambassadors unto the Ubii: if the chiefs and senate of whom *might have made* faith to themselves by oath, they did show themselves about to use that condition which *might be brought* by Caesar; he *might give* the space of three days to

of the subjunctive than to express purpose and one which has an exact equivalent in English, is found in the substantive clause usually object or subject of a verb of volition, command, urging, or the like; for example: "I insist that he *come*" (English subjunctive); or, using the English auxiliaries "shall" or "should," "I insist (present) that he shall come," "I insisted (past) that he should come." There are 133 of these clauses in the first four books of Caesar as against 57 clauses expressing purpose, as is shown in the table.

THE "NON-FACT" SUBJUNCTIVES

Under the general head of "volitive" belong 240 of the 344 *non-fact* subjunctives. Subdivision within this group is justified, even necessitated, by the difference of idiom in the two languages, that is to say, by the problem of *translation*. This is especially true of the last three uses within this group.

Another important *non-fact* use of the subjunctive, and one that has not generally received the recognition due it, is that in clauses of anticipation or expectancy. In earlier English the subjunctive is common in this use. The regular auxiliary, as in most volitive uses, is "shall" or "should;" for example: "Remain until I (*shall*) return," "I urged that he *should* (volitive) remain until I *should* (anticipatory) return," or, "I expected to see him when I should return." Such forward-looking clauses after a past main verb, as in the last example, are here classed as "past future," and always have their verbs in the subjunctive in Latin. This use is especially common in "past-future" conditional clauses. That is to say, after a past main verb the distinction is lost between a future more vivid ("shall") condition and a future less vivid ("should") condition, the verb becoming in either instance an imperfect subjunctive. The English usage shows an exact parallel, the auxiliaries "shall" or "should" becoming, or remaining, "should" after a past main verb. This change in Latin is not therefore due to "Indirect Discourse" but is, in the writer's opinion, one of the leading causes of that usage in Latin.

those things to be accomplished. Caesar did think all these to tend to that same (point), that the delay of three days having been interposed, the cavalry of them who *might be absent* might return."

There are 70 examples of this "past-future" subjunctive in Caesar I-IV, all to be translated by "should," if one wishes to be exact. By a recognition of this usage the pupil's faith in the auxiliary "should" as a probable translation of a *non-fact* subjunctive is greatly increased, relying on which even the most stupid will "arrive" much more often than not.

Of the other *non-fact* subjunctives I need not speak in detail. The notes in the text are usually adequate, and their very rareness renders them easy for the pupil to remember. It is the common, every-where-met constructions that need to be impressed in teaching.

THE "FACT" SUBJUNCTIVE

Almost two-thirds of the subjunctives here being discussed (628 out of 972) express *fact*, and are, with scarcely an exception, best translated by the English indicative. In other words, if a Caesar pupil failed absolutely to recognize two-thirds of his subjunctives (the *right* two-thirds, however) and proceeded to translate them as indicatives, he would be quite as well off as far as his translation is concerned. The troublesome question is: Which two-thirds? To determine this a detailed subdivision of these fact clauses is necessary.

The Consecutive Clauses make up a well-defined group. Result clauses and the closely related substantive clauses are most typical. Here belong the relative descriptive clauses and the developed *cum*-clauses. At this point a glance at the statistics (often the result of very arbitrary decisions, it must be confessed) will show what is the best "guess" at the translation for the conjunction *cum*; or to speak more accurately, one may here see in many instances how the *cum*-clause, descriptive of a situation, may take on the added idea of cause or opposition, and it is only when one or the other of these ideas becomes pre-eminent that the translation "since" or "although" is better than "when." The same development is shown in the threefold classification (based entirely on differences in translation) of the relative descriptive (characteristic) clauses.

The use of the subjunctive in Clauses of Fact in Indirect Dis-

course need no special mention. Whatever theories may be held as to the origin of this usage, it is certainly true that in classical Latin this use of the subjunctive is a mere mechanical device for showing that the clause is a part of an indirect quotation, a sort of half quotation mark, as it were. I need not add that under this head should be classified only such clauses as would in direct form have their verbs in the indicative. Here belong, of course, only those "Indirect Questions" about facts. Indirect Questions of Volition or Propriety are classed as such. The general scheme for the subjunctive in this department thus furnishes as a sort of "by-product," a fairly complete list of those clauses which do regularly have their verbs in the indicative. These need not to have been given so much in detail, and the writer does not so give them in the single wall charts for each book, of which, as was said at the beginning, this table is a compilation.

In the last group are given clauses having their verbs in the subjunctive by "attraction," a quite definite phenomenon in Latin usage, the origin of which need not be here discussed. The practical thing for the pupil to do here, as well as in dealing with clauses in indirect discourse, when he finds a verb in the subjunctive which he knows *ought to be* in the indicative, is to "apologize" for it, so to speak, on the ground that it is "in indirect discourse" or "attracted" and then go ahead and translate it as if it *were* in the indicative.

The aim, in such a presentation as has here been discussed, is to secure and fix in the mind of the pupil a sound basis for classification, with suggestions for proper translation of the subjunctive in its varied, yet quite definite, uses. When on taking up the reading of Caesar the pupil meets for the first time what may seem to him an endless variety of subjunctives, he should be saved from complete mystification and the attendant temptation to regard the whole thing as a guessing contest first and last. Even worse is the error of mechanically translating all subjunctives alike, an error fostered by the stock translations of the subjunctive in the paradigms of some first books and grammars. Of the two errors, I say, the former is less dangerous. For inasmuch as the two languages have much in common

in their modal machinery, the pupil will succeed in an adequate translation of a given subjunctive in direct proportion to his feeling for correct English, especially if we count out the large number of fact subjunctives he may miss altogether! The difficulty, however, is that such a method leaves the pupil always a guesser, and English, as well as Latin grammar, greatly needs intelligent, systematic treatment, and in no field is this need more apparent than in the use of the much-neglected English subjunctive.

EDITORIAL NOTES

High-school teachers are disposed to hold themselves aloof from the effort which is now being made to develop a general body of principles of education. The teachers of the lower grades are very much occupied with such questions as the parallelism between racial evolution and individual development, or the importance of the formal steps as means of organizing the materials of instruction. The high-school teacher, on the other hand, absents himself from teachers' meetings and with fine scorn characterizes these discussions on the part of teachers in the lower grades as useless theory.

All this is easily understood when it is remembered that the high school has, until very recently, had its work worked out for it by well-established tradition and by the demands of the colleges. Furthermore, the high school has been an exclusive institution attended by the few, and consequently problems of economy of effort have never become so acute as they are in the lower schools. The higher the educational institution the greater the waste which will be tolerated without question.

Another reason for the lack of interest in educational discussion on the part of high-school teachers is doubtless to be found in the fact that most of the scientific results which have thus far been obtained relate to the simpler problems of mental development. The infant has been described frequently in books on children, while little corresponding work has been done on school children. With the exception of President Hall's volumes on *Adolescence* and *Youth*, the literature of education strikes below the high-school age, and there is so much mythology in Dr. Hall's books that one can hardly wonder at the reluctance of high-school teachers to read or follow their teachings.

There are unmistakable signs, however, that a change is at hand. The high school is breaking away from the leadings of the college. The demands for better methods of organization and teaching are making themselves felt. Traditions are weakening and the general scientific spirit of the age which leads men in all occupations to examine their practices critically is asserting itself even in our higher schools. There are those who dare to call into question the long-accepted notions of discipline. The first year of high school which drives away so many students with its barren programme of ancient history, Latin, and algebra is on the defensive. All this means that somewhere and somehow the pressure is being exerted to drive the high-school teacher to a careful consideration of his task.

NEW MOTIVES
FOR THE
STUDY OF
EDUCATION

At such a juncture as this very much depends upon the way in which the programme for future work is presented. Let us arouse none of the old antipathies by suggesting the study of psychology or child-study, but let us insist that every high-school teacher be called upon to give a good reason for his or her mode of instruction. Let us ask for a classification of the students with reference to their differences in mental characteristics. The teacher who seeks to give definite answers to such questions as these will find that there is something more in teaching than a mere knowledge of a subject. The subject-matter must be arranged so as to appeal to students. The student must be considered as a part of the problem. The great difficulty up to this time is that the problem of the scientific study of education has not been attacked directly enough. Teachers have been referred to books on this, that, and the other related science. Let us now set up a standard of our own and say that we will study the problem by all means at hand and master it directly. There is no use waiting for the psychologists or the sociologists or anyone else. The problem of education must be taken up as a problem worthy of the best scientific talent.

Let a faculty take as its problem the thorough examination of the five poorest students in the school. What are their traits of character and mind? What is the most obvious defect in their training? What steps can be tried to improve them? How can a record be kept which will show the effects of the treatment? This is a scientific programme which is clear enough to command respect and large enough to engage the best energies of a highly trained high-school faculty.

There will be another effect of the adoption of such a programme. Better trained men and women will be attracted into the high schools for they will find in the scientific study of these problems a sphere for the exercise of genuine productive intelligence. The high school today is too often looked upon as a second-rate intellectual sphere. Well-trained teachers wish to get out of the high school into the higher institutions where they can carry on research. The high school needs the best scientific talent that can be had. Everything is being worked out scientifically today. Banking, agriculture, advertising, engineering are attractive to well-trained minds because they present problems. The high-school teacher who drones over the same text year after year and sees no problem in his work ought to be rated as a second- or third-class mind. That teacher who sees the high-school problem and takes it up and promotes its solution will justify his profession as one of the most absorbing and as entirely worthy of any training that our highest institutions can devise.

C. H. J.

CERTAIN
SCIENTIFIC
PROBLEMS

EFFECT
ON
TEACHERS

BOOK REVIEWS

In Greece with the Classics. By WILLIAM AMORY GARDNER. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1908. Pp. 301.

Mr. Gardner's *In Greece with the Classics* is the fruit of a commendable experience of reading Greek literature while visiting Athens, Mycenae, Delphi, Olympia, and other scenes of ancient splendor. As an expression of genuine interest for that literature, this book deserves more than a passing notice. Specialists will hardly add it to their libraries, but if the audience to which the author makes his appeal is touched by the spirit of the great literary masterpieces, selections from which Mr. Gardner essays to translate, this book will have fulfilled an important mission.

Whether visiting such places as are mentioned above, or Corinth, Eleusis, Aegina, and Marathon, Mr. Gardner offers translations of passages from the Greek classics naturally suggested by the localities under discussion, and these translations constitute the chief burden of his handsome volume; while not always convincing, some renderings, nevertheless, as of the Homeric episode of Nausicaa, catch something of the eternal charm of the original; parts of Aeschylus' *Agamemnon* and of the Homeric hymns are unmistakably successful, but unfortunately the sheaf contains tares as well, and the chaff detracts from the value of the grain. The thread of narrative that binds these translations together is, to be sure, no authoritative account of history, legend, geography, topography, archeology, and mythology, but these fragments of wisdom, though often failing to create an atmosphere, will, perhaps, accomplish their end with those very readers who may, too, take an interest in the author's occasional sentimental and picturesque touches.

Criticism touching the absolute relevancy or irrelevancy of certain selections from the ancient literature or of the other data employed, were quite beside the mark in view of the necessarily large part the personal equation plays in a *mélange* such as this work is; though some of the translations lack distinction and although the author's erudition is not always vital, yet the work as a whole is quite free from actual error and will commend itself to those who would spend some pleasant hours in profitable reverie over a past, replete with enthusiasms.

A bibliography of the leading translations of the Greek classics as well as of standard handbooks on art, archeology, and history would, conceivably, have proven of value to those uninitiated readers who may welcome Mr. Gardner's book and be led by it to deeper researches. But a profound interest attaches to any work betraying the deep-seated love for Greek literature that constituted the inspiration of the present work, which may well be regarded as an academic phenomenon of no slight value.

GEORGE DEPUE HADZSITS

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

The Community and the Citizen. By ARTHUR WILLIAM DUNN. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1908. Illustrated. Pp. 268.

The object which the writer of this little book had in mind is perhaps best stated by him in his *Suggestions to the Teacher*.

"The pupil should be kept as far away as possible from the idea that he is studying a book. The real object of his study is the community in which he lives; the text is a guide to the facts of his own community life and an interpretation of them."

With this object we must all agree. Unless American boys and girls can be taught to "to play the game" and to "play it square" we cannot hope to realize on our boasted investment in a democracy. What the community does for the body, mind, aesthetic enjoyment, and sense of right of its citizens, how dependent he is upon his fellows in person, property, and ideals the book keeps before the reader all the time. It also illustrates these facts repeatedly by concrete instances and suggestive questions and topics. I know of no other elementary book in this field which so successfully keeps to the ideal of social function, as distinct from mere structure or mechanism, as the material to be studied in civics. This is good pedagogy, for it meets the child's interest in life more than half way. He must be a dull teacher indeed who under the guidance of this book finds his pupils listless or uninterested.

The book also makes clear the fact of industrial as well as local, state, and national political functions in behalf of the plain citizen. The community, in other words, is presented in its complexity, and yet so simply and concretely that the boys and girls for whom it was intended can hardly fail to understand it.

Another excellence is the use of the historical method and material. Not only is the child's thought kept weaving back and forth between his own experiences and various larger community activities that are going on about him now, but his thought is also led back and forth in time between the present and the past in such a way as to show development, cause, and effect—how things have come to be done as they are done.

And yet, in spite of all its good points, one feels at times that even this book ought to be and might be better. Boys and girls may study interesting social functions, even those which they realize are for their own benefit, with much the same sense of objectivity, of detachment, and aloofness with which they study a steam engine. What we must have, and the author recognizes this, is such a study of civic functions as includes the student in the function studied, and that not as a beneficiary but as one responsible for the result. How do *we* do all these things, not how do *they* do them, must be more insistently kept in mind than in even this excellent book.

The child is a citizen, not merely *will be* a citizen, and that so alert a social teacher as the author could lose sight of this fact long enough to refer to the child, even incidentally, as the "coming citizen" may justify the hope that in a revised edition he will still further so vitalize this little book as to enable it to lead its readers, not merely to study, but to live a more abundant community life.

HENRY W. THURSTON

CHICAGO

American Insects. "American Nature Series." By VERNON L. KELLOGG.
New York: Henry Holt, 1908. Pp. xiv+693. 812 figures. \$5.00.

A second edition of *American Insects* by Professor Kellogg contains an extensive collection of data interesting to any general student of insect life. An introductory discussion presents fully and in a most readable manner the general facts concerning the structures and functions of parts of insects, and the metamorphoses found in their life-cycles. Following a discussion of the plan of classification of insects, the groups of insects, under fourteen order-headings are discussed. In presenting each order, in addition to discussion of the characteristic structure of its members, and the general facts of their metamorphoses, the natural-history or ecological aspects receive so full treatment as to make the book a valuable source of information.

In a chapter on "Insects and Flowers" the author demonstrates, that while he may be entirely accurate as an entomologist, the botanical side of the discussion is not so dependable. Of this three illustrations may be cited. First, in presenting the general plan of fertilization in seed plants, a figure (Fig. 761, 2.) is presented from which one would infer that fertilization takes place within the pollen-tube after it has extended into the embryo-sac. The figure is copied from a fairly well-known textbook of botany. Secondly, it is stated that "Cross-pollination is simply the bringing of pollen from one plant individual to the stigmas of another individual of the same species." Amongst botanists cross-pollination is understood to cover all cases of transfer of pollen from one flower to another whether these flowers are grown upon the same individual plant or separate individuals. The content of the term is much wider than indicated in the above quotation. Thirdly, there appears a wholly inexcusable error, one that illustrates the great danger of not knowing one's data by means of a study of the materials discussed, or at least of authentic accounts regarding these materials. The oft-cited case of self-pollination of *Yucca* by means of the moth *Pronuba* is described as a remarkable case of cross-pollination, it being stated that the account is "taken largely from Steven's *Introduction to Botany*." After describing the preliminary behavior of *Pronuba* it is stated that, "Having become well loaded with pollen, as shown in the photomicrograph of the moth's head, it descends the stamen and flies to another flower. There it places itself on the pistil between two of the stamens and thrusts a slender ovipositor through the wall of the ovary and into the cavity occupied by the ovules. Having deposited an egg, it ascends the pistil . . . it rubs pollen down the inner surface of the stigmatic tube." This process is reported then to be repeated within the same flower without the moth having secured a new supply of pollen. Unfortunately for these authors, those who have observed and described this wonderful case of *Yucca* and *Pronuba*, point out that the entire process, pollen-gathering and all, occurs within the same flower, hence self- and not cross-pollination is secured.

Timely attention is given to the following topics, a chapter being given to each: "Color and Pattern and Their Uses," "Insects and Disease," "Reflexes, Instincts, and Intelligence," and "Collecting and Rearing Insects."

O. W. CALDWELL

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Carla Wenckebach, Pioneer. By MARGARETHE MÜLLER. Boston and London: Ginn & Co., 1908. Pp. 290. Illustrated. \$1.25.

Wellesley historical material has made great gains this year in the *Life of Alice Freeman Palmer*, her published addresses in the volume entitled *The Teacher*, and now in the life of the extraordinary woman who was Mrs. Palmer's intimate friend and for many years the head of the German department in the college. Fräulein Wenckebach's characteristic signature on the outside of the volumes she has edited as *Der Trompeter von Säkkingen* together with the excellent introductions she has written have been the most common means of affording any acquaintance with her.

The biographer states that her reasons for writing have been her "desire to share a precious possession" and "to furnish an historic document of a life which . . . represents a type of seemingly increasing prominence—that of the woman in whose mental make-up sex does not appear to be of prime and decisive importance . . . one who marries if the man comes her way, but otherwise 'hunts' congenial activity in preference to man or motherhood."

The book makes a number of interesting contributions to the literature of childhood and adolescence. We get glimpses of the sturdy little Frisian maiden with her unusual disabilities in living up to the German ideal of girlhood. She would not learn to sew, domineered over other children, was adored by the servants, especially the men with whom she smoked her little pipe, which had its place with the others on the rack in the servant's kitchen. She played marbles for keeps—was a thoroughgoing tom-boy. At seventeen we find her rising at four in Hannover, and, in order to secure the seat she wished in the seminar lecture-room, is "boosted" by a friend over a ten-foot wall and so gains first admittance for her group of friends. This independence is representative of her actions through life. As a governess in Scotland, in the Caucasus, in New York, she must have been always a striking figure and sometimes a difficult person to understand and to get along with.

It does not seem that the life we have described up to her thirtieth year was the *propaedeutic* one would expect for life in the inner circle at Wellesley. Yet it seems to have served that purpose well and one's respect for that peculiar institution, the Wellesley of early days, is increased by the fact that this positive character was not only accepted but highly valued there.

The life for a time in Russia is helpful in giving so clear an account of social conditions in the frontier toward the Orient. Some elements of barbarism mingle with the later developments of Rousseau's doctrines and work themselves out in an artificial social life in which the children are the greatest sufferers. A less primitive and active nature than that of the German governess would not have seen so much meaning in so complicated a situation. One wishes that sometime further extracts from the journals and even the often-mentioned novel dealing with this eastern experience may be published.

There is less than is desired in this sketch that will help the reader to understand clearly Miss Wenckebach's impressions of the difference between German and other education. She shares the feeling found in most Germans and many others in any country outside of France that, however bad educational conditions may be in Germany, they are better there than anywhere else and that

this excellence is due to "German thoroughness." One would get the impression that the girls' school in Hildesheim gave a training in which superficiality had no possible part. I have seen in more recent years in other girls' schools in Germany conditions of superficial work in the natural sciences, for instance, which seemed to me alarming in the case of the American girls who happened to be studying in them and who expected later to take the examinations for entrance into an American college. I know no high school of first or second grade in this country which would come so near the ideals of the old-fashioned "finishing school" as did the ones I have in mind. In the *Fräulein's* criticisms of America, written from New York in 1880, she says, "If you want to find good teachers or people who have actually acquired a scholarly training in this country you have to hunt them out with a lantern. The lack of exact knowledge is a great flaw in the intellectual make-up of a nation that in all other respects is so splendidly progressive." This adverse criticism had more of truth in it thirty years ago than it has today yet it reminds me of the remark of an English friend who told me that his book for teachers of Greek had been declined by an American publisher because the American teacher of Greek had not sufficient scholarship to use it. That was hard after having seen some of the Greek teaching that had come in my way in England. The difficulty is that these comparisons usually take one stratum in one country and another in the other. As a sidelight on the omniscience felt by the German after a preparation in "thoroughness" we find Carla Wenckebach in New York stopping her literary work and taking up a "scientific study of astronomy, geology, philology, and other 'ologies and 'onomies" in order to write a textbook for children. It was a German teacher of high training and family connections who offered in the same city to teach for me on a moment's notice an unknown class in any subject in any grade!

The book is very well written. It will be valuable in high school, normal school, and college as well as in private libraries.

FRANK A. MANN

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICH.

Life Questions of High-School Boys. By JEREMIAH W. JENKS. New York: Young Men's Christian Association Press, 1908. Pp. 143.

No writer in economics and politics has furnished so much material of use in school problems as has Professor Jenks. So when a book dealing with the life questions of high-school boys is written by him we turn to it with the hope that it will prove a valuable tool in meeting the serious needs of secondary education.

There are chapters on the relation of high-school to life; custom, habit; societies, cliques, fraternities; intoxicating liquors and tobacco; profanity and slang; cheating and graft; gambling and betting; the sex problem; religion, etc. Each chapter is prefaced by a number of quotations principally from Emerson and the Bible. There are also suggested readings outlined from Emerson, Bacon, the Bible, William Mathews, Samuel Smiles, and Lowell.

A reading of the book resulted in considerable disappointment. A skilful

teacher well acquainted with boys can make some good use of it, but such a teacher has most of the material it furnishes already in hand. The average man will use it much as he does the Sunday-school journals. The book is published by the Y. M. C. A., and in form, typography, blank-note leaves, condensed statement, brief presentation, etc., it recalls much more other manuals published by the association than it does other work of the author. The preface states the necessity of guiding "the boys in the way of independent, wise thinking," but the laboratory method appears as a minor opportunity, and even then somewhat generalized: as, "Let the student look up the practices of the most respected, upright men of the community when they were in school;" and, "Enumerate the dangers to the individual of gambling and betting."

One turns to the chapters on fraternities and on the sex problem—but what can be done in each case in about five hundred words? Some three years ago one of the popular magazines had an article discussing the attitude of high-school boys toward public graft. It was suggested at the time that a more valuable study would have been the practices of these same boys in the school situations giving opportunity for cheating and graft. The chapter on this topic is one of the best, in that it gets directly at boy problems.

We hope that the author will undertake the same task again with less limitations as to size of the work, precedents of publishers, etc.

FRANK A. MANNY

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICH.

Algebra for Secondary Schools. By E. R. HEDRICK. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 421. \$1.00.

The author has aimed to make "a book that is at once thoroughly modern, yet conservative of what was good in the older textbooks." Graphical methods are used freely but always in connection with the topic under discussion. The problems are selected with care and a few new ones are added to the slowly growing list of "real" problems adapted to the students of elementary algebra. Plenty of drill exercises are given and no topic called for by the prevailing college requirements is omitted, although several of them, such as the Euclidean method of finding highest common factor are placed in the appendix. Summaries at the ends of chapters, an index, and tables of formulas are useful additions.

Besides the liberal use of graphs, the characteristic of the book which strikes the attention of the reader is the unusual combination of pedagogical insight and regard for mathematical accuracy. The language is simple and clear, and much space is given to careful discussion of each topic. The application is given in close connection with the principle. For example, in developing the fundamental processes with algebraic expressions, the need of a knowledge of the processes in using formulas and solving equations is brought out, and the student is called upon to use his partial knowledge in the solving of problems before the application of the process to the more difficult expressions is considered. On the other hand, the truth of each new principle is proved or, if

that is not possible at the stage reached, the limitation of the principle is stated. The author lays stress on the value of conviction in the mind of the student in distinction from the ability to reproduce a proof.

Many teachers will not care to make such a general use of graphs as is suggested by Professor Hedrick; some may find it easier to develop the mechanical proficiency required for "examination-passing" with a book which devotes less space to principles and applications, but most teachers who give the new text a careful reading will find it thoughtful and thought-provoking.

ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOL
NEW YORK CITY

WILLIAM E. STARK

Readings in English History Drawn from the Original Sources. (Intended to illustrate *A Short History of England*.) By EDWARD P. CHEYNEY. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1908. Pp. 781. \$1.80.

The need of illustrative material drawn from original sources is felt by every teacher of history. If history is to be studied as a living subject vitally related to the world of today, the student must read contemporary records of past events, not merely a historian's interpretation of them. The young learner must himself drink of the same fountain from which textbook-makers and more pretentious historians have drawn before him. This does not imply that high-school and college students should always get the facts of history from original sources—far from it. Most original sources are inaccessible to most students and even if they were accessible the task of interpreting them is, without assistance, too difficult for immature minds. The real need is rather for illustrative material to accompany the textbook or formal history. This need Mr. Cheyney has undertaken to supply in one field of study by his *Readings in English History*.

Beginning with the descriptions of England given by Caesar, Diodorus Siculus, and Tacitus, Mr. Cheyney has followed his subject down to the newspaper accounts of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee. The book was intended to accompany and supplement the compiler's *Short History of England* and corresponds in sequence to that excellent textbook, but this fact in no way lessens its value to the student who uses another book or to the general reader. Mr. Cheyney has a wide and scholarly knowledge of the material from which the narrative history of England is drawn and has chosen wisely from this abundant store.

In the Saxon period of English history besides extracts from the ever-fruitful *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* and Bede's *Ecclesiastical History* we find selections from Alcuin and Asser and the poem of Beowulf that vividly set forth the life and ideals of the time. When the extracts bear upon the Norman Conquest and the feudal system they show not merely military and political history and the doings of kings and courts but the everyday life of the people, the services by which they held land, their religious beliefs and superstitions, and their social customs. Illuminating bits of narrative and description are given, too long to be inserted in a textbook.

In the chapter entitled "The Period of Reform" and "The Growth of Democracy" the history teacher will rejoice to find material like the report

made in 1820 by a committee of the House of Commons upon the question of doing away with the death penalty for many crimes, selections from Parliamentary debates on the Reform Bill of 1832, and the proposed Factory Acts of 1815 and 1833, selections from statutes, extracts from memoirs and newspapers—material rarely found in school libraries but most helpful to students, young and old. A few words of introduction or explanation accompany each selection and a good index adds to the usefulness of the work.

CHICAGO NORMAL SCHOOL

DORA WELLS

Composition and Rhetoric. By CHARLES SWAIN THOMAS AND WILL DAVID HOWE. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909. Pp. 517.

Shall we ever have the Great American Rhetoric and Composition Book? Does it lie within the power of anyone to write such a book? Is it possible to make a textbook of that sort that will answer the local and the national requirements? Certainly many efforts have been made to produce just that sort of book, but all such efforts have failed. This failure often lies in the author's effort to spread his thick local conditions over a large area of supposed national deficiencies, thereby making a very thin coating for the wider field. Or, if he writes with a theory in mind, be it psychological or pedagogical, he is too likely to neglect the practical side of the business. If he has the practical side well in hand he is likely to fail in making the matter pleasing. From whatever point he approaches his subject he is almost sure to be unbalanced by the neglect of some essential quality that is not apparent in his limited experience. Should he be so fortunate as to have experienced the difficulties of teaching the mother tongue to pupils whose linguistic inheritance comes from the Germans, the Scandinavians, the Dutch, and the Russians, to name only a few nationalities, he would assuredly be less confident that he has the master idea to solve the intricacies of our American English. Indeed, it is asking too much of any teacher or textbook-maker to set forth a national system of teaching English. And it is also asking too much to expect anyone to write the *Great Book*. Let us be satisfied if the succession of books on rhetoric and composition adds a mite of information or suggestion to the solution of this vexed question.

But were we asked to name any one book that comes, in our opinion, to the nearest solution of this national question, the nearest to being the greatest book on rhetoric and composition, we should not hesitate to name Thomas and Howe's *Composition and Rhetoric*. This praise, we know, will sound like wild and whirling words in many ears. We stand ready to hear a cry of protest on every side; we expect to hear accusations of every sort from everybody who is particularly interested in some other book. But we are expressing only an individual opinion and a personal judgment. And for that opinion and that judgment we are glad to give our reasons.

To be perfectly frank we must say that we have watched Mr. Thomas' work in the Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, for nearly a decade. Furthermore, our knowledge of his work has been so intimate that we have seen his practice grow into a theory—a very mild and a very simple theory—and his theory grow into a little manuscript and his manuscript grow into a good-

sized book. (Very often the making of a textbook takes the opposite course.) Moreover, we have seen this book amplified and fortified by the assistance of Dr. Howe. Hence, though our personal relations with the main author have been very intimate, we trust that the relationship has not biased our judgment.

Now, if our frankness and our very uncritical attitude have led the reader of this review thus far we shall endeavor to give some of the reasons that lead us to such exalted praise of this book.

In the first place we are heartily, and we trust, intelligently, impressed with the point of view taken by the authors. Nowhere in the book is there an undue advertisement of a theory. The distinctive motive of the authors seems to lie in their having an old-fashioned idea that the teaching of writing and speaking English is in writing and speaking English—certainly not a very metaphysical theory. They have not littered their book with the muddled-up, new-fangled ideas that mark so many recent books on the subject. "Our aim," the authors say, "is not to train writers in the finer graces of language. That accomplishment depends upon the individual student and lies beyond our power." Here is no theory that will please those who think that the teaching of English composition is one of the black arts which needs a mystic wand and a conjurer to reveal the secrets of simple speaking and writing. As a matter of fact it takes some courage to put forth a book that treats such homely topics as "The Composition as a Whole," "The Paragraph and Its Structure," "The Sentence," "Rhetorical Essentials of the Sentence," "Words," "Letter Writing," "The Forms of Discourse," and "Common Errors in Grammar," in a plain way and with an openness of mind that precludes any mystifications or suggestions of unusual difficulties. And it is equally a commendable trait to lead the pupil to think that speaking and writing English are not big black bugaboos hiding behind that frightful scarehead—the college entrance requirements. Could we only put ourselves into entire sympathy with the simple ideas expressed in this book, we should see many of our pupils take pleasure in their English work.

Though we have spoken of the simple ideas in this book we would not imply that the authors have neglected that other very essential feature of all good work in English—the "constant practice in the exercises." In this particular feature the book has pre-eminent and superior qualities. After a very careful examination of these exercises we can confidently affirm that the suggested topics for compositions are wholly within the scope of that universal human animal—the common, ordinary pupil. There is no drawing upon the knowledge of a pupil of what he has not experienced or what he has not read. Bernard Shaw is not used as an example of what a brilliant man may do in writing a witty conversation. *King Lear* is not referred to as a type for some particular example of a rhetorical principle. Burke and Macaulay and Carlyle are not used for the lack of simpler examples. Literary acuteness is not aimed at or even considered. Refined elements of speech—ever a confusing influence on young minds—are serenely neglected.

But above these excellent qualities, beyond the orderly, plain, and simple arrangement, beyond the excellent exercises, is the attention given to oral work in English. Any supervisor or superintendent who has carefully observed the English in other classes than the classes in English, will readily admit that there the pupil's English is the weakest. A pupil is very naturally inclined to

associate English with a particular teacher or with his prescribed books in English. To carry that precision of speech that he is inclined to observe in the English classroom into other classrooms is not, so he is only too apt to think, a very necessary accomplishment. Nor, and let us say it boldly, is he always impressed by the teachers of other subjects that he should carry the burden elsewhere; he gets enough of that in the English work. So, perforce, much of this oral work falls back on the teacher of English. He must so broaden the pupil's mind, so teach him orderly arrangement of thought, and so impress him with the desirability of using his mother tongue correctly, that he will handle other topics without bungling. Something of this kind of work is accomplished in the book under consideration. To detail the steps would be overstepping our allotted space.

Were our space for review purposes as unlimited as our enthusiasm for this book we should write at length on the unique method, everywhere in evidence in the volume, of instilling into the pupil's mind the valuable art of self-criticism. We should also tell of the scheme devised to show inexperienced teachers how to correct themes in an intelligent manner. Chapters on other essentials in English composition are also adequately treated.

A final word, however, is necessary to explain the time required for the book. It is made for a one-book course in English. It covers the whole course of three or four years, but it ill suits the requirements for a two-year course. Those who favor the single-book course will find the book adequate; those who favor a two-book course must look elsewhere.

H. E. COBLENTZ

SOUTH DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL
MILWAUKEE, WIS.

Handbook of Composition. By EDWIN C. WOOLLEY. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Pp. xxi+239.

This little book deserves the utmost praise. We have submitted it to every test that such a book may undergo, and we have not found it wanting in any particular respect. Its scope is wide and diversified; its helpfulness is direct and positive. The author does not overstate its usefulness when he says in his preface, "This manual is designed for two uses. It may be used, first, by students of composition for reference, at the direction of the instructor, in case of error in themes; second, it may be used for independent references by persons who have writing of any kind to do, and who want occasional information on matters of good usage, grammar, spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, manuscript-arrangement, or letter-writing." An exhaustive index, a synopsis of the numbered rules, a wide glossary of misused words, and a list of words often mispronounced are only a few of the excellent features of this distinctive little book. Every teacher of English will find this the handiest book of its kind. We are sure that everyone who sees the book will wish to own it, and will praise it far more than we have done in this brief comment. We shall be surprised if both author and publisher are not gratified at the sale of the book.

H. E. COBLENTZ

SOUTH DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL
MILWAUKEE, WIS.

A New Interpretation of Herbart's Psychology and Educational Theory.
By JOHN DAVIDSON, M.A., D.PHIL. (Edin.). Edinburgh and London:
Blackwood & Sons. Pp. xviii+191.

This is an essay submitted to the Senatus of the University of Edinburgh as a Doctor's thesis. It is certainly far above the average of Doctor's theses. The fact that it is a Doctor's thesis probably accounts for the word "new" in the title. The conviction of originality which this word expresses is doubtless well founded in so far as it means that the thesis represents what a Doctor's thesis should represent, namely, the *capacity* for origination in the one presenting it rather than an actual "historical contribution to the total of knowledge." There is much in the essay that is fresh, suggestive, and stimulating. But that it presents historically, what it doubtless is to the author personally—a new standpoint for interpreting Herbart—is a claim scarcely warranted by the text.

The alleged "newness" of the standpoint consists in the assimilation of Herbart to Leibniz. But surely, in its broader aspect, this could hardly escape many students of even a general course in the history of modern philosophy. Indeed, as the author points out Herbart acknowledged it (the assimilation) himself. However the details of this connection between Herbart and Leibniz are worked out in an interesting way and are for the most part well taken.

After a brief exposition of the main features of Leibniz's psychology the author passes to his analysis of Herbart's and soon runs into the inevitable problem of the apparent differences between Herbart's psychology and his educational doctrines. Inside the discussion of the psychology itself this problem takes the form of "interpreting" Herbart's presentationism so as to overcome his extreme psychological intellectualism.

This undertaking is a perfectly justifiable one and at many points is successful. But again at times the "interpretation" seems strained—e.g., the way in which the author replies (pp. 91, 92) to Ostermann's criticism of Herbart's account of feeling in terms of clear and obscure presentations.

Again what is said of the value of Herbart's conception of will and desire as operative "in and through" presentations is excellent. But when we remember that in Herbart's psychological theory the object of this desire and will is merely to reach clear and distinct presentations we begin to realize how difficult, indeed, it is to escape from Herbart's "circle of thought."

All ideas are, to be sure, definitized desire and will, and the insistence upon this is, as the author says, one of Herbart's chief services to psychology and education. But when we make the sole object of desire and will just the mere definitizing itself, we lose much of the value of the interpretation.

Herbart's presentational psychology doubtless began in his practical tutoring experiences. In these he soon enough discovered the pedagogical emptiness and futility of such high-sounding shibboleths of the day as "rational freedom," "self-activity," "sovereign will," etc. However "free" or "self-active" or "sovereign" the will may be, it has to be capable of analysis and statement, of differentiation and articulation, if the teacher is to get any leverage on it.

But in making this definitization in and through ideas, which is the teacher's point of leverage, the sole content and object of the will itself, Herbart's

theory fell into the psychologist's, or rather the pedagogue's, fallacy from which the author labors in vain to deliver it.

Fortunately the educational doctrines and practice of the Herbartians are better than Herbart's psychological theory. The Herbartians have been quick to "interpret" apperception and interest in motor and social terms.

The author's short concluding chapter on "Interest versus Self-Realization" in which he defends the former, is one of the best in the book. The volume is entitled to a place in Herbartian bibliography.

A. W. MOORE

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A Beginner's Book in Latin. By DAVID SAVILLE MUZZEY, PH.D. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1907. Pp. xii+241.

This is a book with merit enough to justify its existence in a field that has long been crowded. Its chief aim, in the words of its author, is "to fit the student to follow Caesar, to *accompany* Caesar, through his campaigns with the Helvetians, with Ariovistus, with the Belgians, and not lag far behind the baggage-train, as he does now." To this end the author has used not only a vocabulary that comes from Caesar, but sentences from the same source. "The book is quite frankly an introduction to Caesar."

Part I consists of seventy-two pages, in twenty-five chapters, wholly devoted to matters of inflection. Part II comprises some one hundred and twenty-five pages, in thirty-three chapters devoted to syntax. Part III, the rest of the book, contains a list of ten inductive exercises from Books I and II, of Caesar's *Commentaries*. These exercises are preceded by some excellent suggestions as to the use of a vocabulary, and some helpful hints to the student about to begin his translation of connected discourse.

One is warranted in thinking that both the learning and the teaching of inflections in the rapid succession in which Part I presents them must be a laborious process in which the student's interest would be likely to lag. The learner would, however, be saved from "the distressing presentiment" mentioned by the author, "that there is no end to Latin declensions and conjugations."

Part II seems to us especially well written. It provides for a constant review of inflections as found in Part I, it simplifies and systematizes matters of syntax to a degree undertaken by only a few of the best beginners' books; finally, it seems rational in requiring but a minimum of the students' time for the translation of English into Latin.

The book, though well bound, with a good quality of paper and readable type within, is almost severely plain. The author has inserted nothing to embellish the pages or "peptonize" the text, though to many teachers it will be a matter of regret that he has used no "pictures, colloquies, fables, or details of Roman morals and customs." To postpone these helps until the student is ready for Terence and Horace is to deny them to all but a small percentage of the students who begin the study of Latin.

JAMES O. ENGLEMAN

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Deutsches Aussprachewörterbuch. Heft 1, A—biogenetisch. Von WILHELM VIËTOR. Leipzig: O. R. Reisland, 1908. Pp. 48. M.1.20.

This is the first "Lieferung" of Viëtor's long expected dictionary of German pronunciation. It will appear in eight Lieferungen and consist of altogether about four hundred pages. Each Lieferung costs 1.20 Marks. The entire vocabulary of the German tongue is to be recorded in this dictionary, and transcribed with the phonetic signs of the "Association Phonétique Internationale." The Bühnenaussprache is used. Every foreign-born teacher of German will undoubtedly be glad to own a book which gives him the exact pronunciation of all German words. Viëtor's reputation as a phonetician is a guaranty for the most minute accuracy of the recorded pronunciations.

Dictionary of the English and German Languages. 41st ed., entirely rewritten and greatly enlarged. By WILLIAM JAMES. German-English and English-German in one vol. New York: Macmillan, 1908. \$1.50.

The fact that James's *Dictionary* has reached its forty-first edition shows the great usefulness of the book. It is perfectly reliable and can be recommended to every student of German, unhesitatingly. The essential change characterizing the present edition, as compared with the former ones, is the inclusion of every important synonym in the German part, as well as in the English one. For every German word the accent is given. The price of \$1.50 is extremely reasonable for a volume of more than one thousand pages. Printing, paper, and binding are excellent.

A. C. VON NOÉ

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Lehrerschaft und Schulhygiene in Vergangenheit und Gegenwart. By KARL ROLLER. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner, 1907. Pp. 35. Mo. 80.

This pamphlet, which is an offprint from *Gesunde Jugend* (6th year), opens with evidence to show that physicians have been more active than schoolmen in the development of the modern science of school hygiene, and that, indeed, many present-day schools evince a woeful lack of application of established hygienic principles.

Notwithstanding this fact, a survey of the history of education shows that educators of former days not infrequently did give serious consideration, both in theory and practice, to the problem of health in education. Thus, for instance, the Spartans and the Athenians, and to a less extent, the Romans (as illustrated in the texts of Athenaios and Quintilian), made capital of physical training, bodily inurement, and athletic games. During the Middle Ages, the principles of hygiene received, it is true, but scant recognition, but, beginning with the sixteenth century, contributions worthy of note were made by Luther, Melancthon, the Jesuits, Montaigne, Ratichs, Comenius, Locke, Basedow, the Philanthropists (Guts Muths), and even by Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel.

The beginnings of the modern movement, i.e. of the systematic study of the hygiene of education as a science, Roller attributes in part to the half-forgotten *System einer vollständigen medicinischen Polizei* of the Vienna phy-

sician Johann Peter Frank (1745-1821), but more particularly to the stir that greeted the appearance in 1836 of Lorinser's *Zum Schutz der Gesundheit in den Schulen*. This essay he regards as the precursor of the prolific contributions of later physicians like Cohn, Eulenberg, Griesbach, Kraepelin, Schmid-Monnard, and of schoolmen like Hermann Schiller, Burgerstein, Janke, Hans Sack, Kemsies, and others, whose publications he lists in some detail. The more important German periodicals dealing with school hygiene are also cited to show, in conjunction with the book bibliography just mentioned, that acquaintance with this field of activity is indispensable to the well-informed teacher.

In a final section, the author discusses the hygienic activity of the teacher with respect to (a) the hygiene of building-construction, (b) the hygiene of instruction, (c) the hygiene of the child at school, and (d) the hygiene of the child at home (in co-operation with parents). In this discussion attention is paid to the intelligent use of devices for the illumination, sanitation, and ventilation of the building, to the hygiene of methods of instruction, the recognition of physical defects and of mental disease, to the use of precautions against over-pressure, the arrangement of the daily programme, the optimal adjustment of rest-pauses, to the need of supervision of bodily posture, of co-operation with the school physician in the recognition of school diseases, and of exclusion of infectious cases, and to the instruction of pupils in the fundamentals of personal hygiene, with special reference to the care of the teeth. The author believes that parents' meetings, when properly conducted, afford a peculiarly valuable means for securing the co-operation of parents in the furtherance of the teacher's efforts for the welfare of his pupils. He very rightly contends that, to secure the best results in the public schools, a systematic, intensive course in school hygiene, conducted by a competent instructor, must form an essential part of the professional preparation of teachers in normal schools and universities.

GUY MONTROSE WHIPPLE

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Elementary Algebra. By FREDERICK H. SOMERVILLE. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 407.

This book contains the usual college-entrance material. Principles are clearly presented and an abundance of exercises, oral and written, is furnished.

The author says that the problems are new, but one recognizes in them the same old friends in slightly different garb. A and B paint a house in one problem instead of persistently building walls, and automobiles take part in the pursuit races, formerly run by hare and greyhound. We quote one of the up-to-date problems: "In a certain baseball game a total of thirteen runs was made by both teams. If the winning team had made two more runs, and the losing team three less, the quotient obtained by dividing the winning runs by the losing runs would have been five. How many runs did each team make?" It may be doubted whether there is any advantage in giving a concrete appearance to such problems by attaching miscellaneous labels to the numbers given.

A few pages of formulas drawn from physics are included and problems

based upon them. The formulas are such as can be sufficiently explained by the teacher in a few moments to enable the pupil to feel that, in solving his problem, he is using algebra to get the answer to a real question.

This book will be found satisfactory as a guide to a course of the stereotyped sort but it makes little or no contribution to the improvement of the teaching of algebra.

First Course in Algebra. By WEBSTER WELLS. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1908. Pp. 232. \$1.00.

The distinctive characteristic of this book is its small size. It is intended to be a first-year course but, while it covers all the topics ordinarily treated in the first year, there are several which are better suited to the second year. It is hardly a half-inch thick and may be very readily carried in the pocket. Those who are troubled by the weight of the book-bags carried by our high-school pupils will welcome this step toward compactness. The book in general follows the beaten track. There is an unusual number of problems based on geometric figures and several good problems drawn from physics are introduced. Several handsome plates in colors illustrate graphical methods, but few teachers, I think, will agree that first-year high-school students require the aid of color-schemes to understand simple graphical problems. For a first-year course of the usual sort this book is well adapted and, in comparison with a large number of similar books, it has the merit of compactness.

WILLIAM E. STARK

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BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

Education in the Far East. By CHARLES F. THWING. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1909. Pp. 277. \$1.50.

Teaching Children to Study. The Group System Applied. By OLIVE M. JONES, ELEANOR G. LEARY, AND AGNES E. QUISH. New York: Macmillan, 1909. Pp. 193. \$0.80.

The Mental Man. An Outline of the Fundamentals of Psychology. By GUSTAV GOTTLIEB WENZLAFF. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1909. Pp. 272. \$1.10.

Teaching to Read. By JAMES L. HUGHES. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1909. Pp. 124. \$0.50.

A History of the Teaching of Elementary Geometry. With Reference to Present-Day Problems. By ALVA WALKER STAMPER. "Columbia University Contributions to Education" (Teachers College Series) No. 23. Pp. 163. New York: Columbia University.

ENGLISH

- English Prose (1137-1890)*. Selected by JOHN MATTHEWS MANLY. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 544. \$1.50.
- Essentials of Public Speaking for Secondary Schools*. By ROBERT I. FULTON AND THOMAS C. TRUEBLOOD. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 235. \$0.90.
- A Student's History of American Literature*. By WILLIAM EDWARD SIMONDS. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1909. Pp. 383. \$1.10.
- Waverly Synopses: A Guide to the Plots and Characters of Scott's "Waverly Novels"*. By J. WALKER McSPADEN.
- The Forms of Discourse*. By WILLIAM B. CAIRNS. (Revised edition.) Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 358. \$1.15.
- Writing and Speaking. A Textbook of Rhetoric*. By CHARLES SEARS BALDWIN. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909. Pp. 445.

FRENCH

- Athalie*. By JEAN RACINE. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by F. M. WARREN. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1909. Pp. 110. \$0.35.
- First Lessons in French*. By P. BANDERET AND PH. REINHARD. Adapted by GRACE SANDWITH. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
- One Thousand Common French Words*. Selected and Arranged by R. DE BLANCHAUD. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 32. \$0.25.
- Exercises in French Conversation and Composition*. With Notes and Vocabulary. By GUSTAV HEIN. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 120. \$0.40.

GERMAN

- Beginning German. A Series of Lessons with an Abstract of Grammar*. By H. C. BIERWIRTH. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1909. Pp. 300. \$0.90.
- Dornröschen: Ein Märchenspiel in vier Scenen*. Von EMMA FISHER. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. With Songs and Music. Pp. 31. \$0.25.
- Das Rothkäppchen: Spiel in fünf Scenen*. Von MATHILDE REICHENBACH. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 27. \$0.25.
- Deutsche Gedichte zum Auswendiglernen*. Selected and edited by W. P. CHALMERS. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 138. \$0.40.
- Easy German Stories*. By HEDWIG LEVI. Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary, by MRS. LUISE DELP. Pp. 100. \$0.40.

GREEK AND LATIN

- The Syntax of High School Latin*. Statistics and Selected Examples Arranged under Grammatical Headings and in Order of Occurrence by Fifty Collaborators. Edited by LEE BYRNE. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1909. Pp. 54. \$0.83.
- Gorgias, Zweiter Teil Platons ausgewählte Schriften*. Für den Schulgebrauch erklärt von CHRISTIAN CRON UND JULIUS DEUSCHLE. Fünfte Auflage neu bearbeitet von WILHELM NESTLE. Leipzig und Berlin: B. G. Teubner, 1909. Pp. 194. \$0.50.
- Thukydides*. Für den Schulgebrauch erklärt von GOTTFRIED BOEHME. Vierten Auflage, bearbeitet von SIMON WIDMANN. Leipzig und Berlin: B. G. Teubner, 1906. Pp. 108. \$0.28.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

- American History.* By JAMES ALTON JAMES AND ALBERT HART SANFORD. New York: Scribner's, 1909. With many illustrations and maps. Pp. 565.
- An Outline of History for the Grades.* By ELLWOOD WADSWORTH KEMP. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 252. \$1.25.
- The Elementary Geography: Vol. I, A First Physiography.* By F. D. HERBERTSON. New York: Oxford University Press, 1909. Illustrated. Pp. 79.
- Stories of the Great West.* By THEODORE ROOSEVELT. New York: The Century Co., 1909. Illustrated. Pp. 254. \$0.60.
- Historical Stories of the Ancient World and the Middle Ages.* Retold from *St. Nicholas*. New York: The Century Co., 1909. Six Volumes: *Stories of the Ancient World*; *Stories of Classic Myths*; *Stories of Greece and Rome*; *Stories of the Middle Ages*; *Stories of Chivalry*; *Stories of Royal Children*. Each about 200 pages. Illustrated. \$0.65 each.

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

- Emergencies: Book Two, Gulick Hygiene Series.* By CHARLOTTE VETTER GULICK. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 174. \$0.40.
- Health Studies. Applied Physiology and Hygiene.* By ERNEST BRYANT HOAG. Prefatory Note by DAVID STARR JORDAN. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1909.
- Experimental Dairy Bacteriology.* By H. L. RUSSELL AND E. G. HASTINGS. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 147. Illustrated.
- Elementary Modern Chemistry.* By WILHELM OSTWALD AND HARRY W. MORSE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 291. Illustrated. \$1.00.
- New Elementary Arithmetic.* By GEORGE WENTWORTH. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 232. \$0.35.
- Complete Arithmetic.* By GEORGE WENTWORTH AND DAVID E. SMITH. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 474. \$0.60.
- The Integrals of Mechanics.* By OLIVER CLARENCE LESTER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 67. \$0.80.
- Plane and Spherical Trigonometry and Four-Place Tables of Logarithms.* By WILLIAM ANTHONY GRANVILLE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 264+38. \$1.25.

MISCELLANEOUS

- The Emmanuel Movement in a New England Town.* By LYMAN P. POWELL. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1909. Pp. 194. \$1.25.
- The Culture Readers.* Embodying the Natural Method in Reading. By ELLEN E. KENYON-WARNER. Books I, II, and III. Illustrated. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
- Primer.* Language Reader Series. By FRANKLIN T. BAKER, GEORGE R. CARPENTER, AND JULIE T. DULON. New York: Macmillan, 1909. Pp. 123. Illustrated. \$0.25.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, the University of Chicago

- ADAMS, EMMA L. The social opportunity of the public library. *Pub. Lib.* 14:247-49. (Jl. '09.)
- BATCHELDER, ERNEST A. London municipal arts and crafts schools. *Craftsman.* 16:641-44. (S. '09.)
- BOBBITT, JOHN FRANKLIN. The growth of Philippine children. *Pedagog. Sem.* 16:137-68. (Je. '09.)
- BOYER, JACQUES. The disinfection of school books. *Sci. Amer.* 101:60, 61. (24 Jl. '09.)
- BRUCE, G. L. The staffing of elementary schools. *Circular* 709. *Educa. Rec.* 17:751-64. (Je. '09.)
- CHAMBERLAIN, ALEXANDER F. Activities of children among primitive peoples. I. *Pedagog. Sem.* 16:252-55. (Je. '09.)
- CHANCELLOR, WILLIAM E. Just teachers. *Journ. of Educa.* 69:687. (24 Je. '09.)
- CHARLES, FRED. The scholarship scheme of the London County Council. *Sch. World.* 11:287-89. (Ag. '09.)
- (A) children's pageant. *Liv. Age.* 44:49-52. (3 Jl. '09.)
- COLBY, CHARLES W. The library and education. *Lib. Journ.* 34:340-45. (Ag. '09.)
- Commemoration of the fourth centenary of St. Paul's School. *Sch. World.* 11:281-83. (Ag. '09.)
- Compulsory continuation schools. *Educa. T.* 62:305-6. (Ag. '09.)
- COOLEY, MRS. ALICE W. Story-telling and the teaching of literature. *Story Hour.* 1:3-8. (Je. '09.)
- CURTIS, ELNORA WHITMAN. Out-door schools. *Pedagog. Sem.* 16:169-94. (Je. '09.)

¹ Abbreviations: *Atlan.*, *Atlantic Monthly*; *Craftsman*, *The Craftsman*; *Educa. Rec.*, *Educational Record*; *Educa. T.*, *Educational Times*; *Engin. N.*, *Engineering News*; *Harp. W.*, *Harper's Weekly*; *Journ. of Educa.*, *Journal of Education*; *Lib. Journ.*, *Library Journal*; *Liv. Age.*, *Living Age*; *Nat. Study R.*, *Nature-Study Review*; *Out.*, *Outlook*; *Pedagog. Sem.*, *Pedagogical Seminary*; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, *Popular Science Monthly*; *Pub. Lib.*, *Public Libraries*; *Relig. Educa.*, *Religious Education*; *Sch. World.*, *School World*; *Sci. Amer.*, *Scientific American*; *Scrib. M.*, *Scribner's Magazine*; *South. Educa. R.*, *Southern Educational Review*; *Story Hour*, *The Story Hour*; *Teach. Coll. Rec.*, *Teacher's College Record*.

- DANIELS, JOSEPH F. The need of manual training in the development of our nation. *Craftsman*. 16:650-55. (S. '09.)
- DIACK, WALTER T. Development in religious education in the Y. M. C. A. *Relig. Educa.* 4:277-80. (Ag. '09.)
- DILLARD, JAMES H. Negro rural schools. *South. Educa. R.* 6:303-8. (Fe.-Mr. '09.)
- DILLON, CHARLES. The university as an aid to commerce: how the industrial fellowships in the University of Kansas are serving the practical needs of man. *Harp. W.* 53:12, 13. (7 Ag. '09.)
- DOWNNEY, JUNE E. The variational factor in handwriting. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 75:147-56. (Ag. '09.)
- EDMISTON, HOMER. A classical education in America. *Atlan.* 104:260-73. (Ag. '09.)
- Equipment for teaching of domestic science. *Teach. Coll. Rec.* 10:1-96. (My. '09.)
- FLETCHER, W. I. To make libraries more effective. *Lib. Journ.* 34:354-55. (Ag. '09.)
- GALPIN, FREDERICK T. The normal religion of a boy. *Relig. Educa.* 4:271-76. (Ag. '09.)
- GATES, HERBERT WRIGHT. Classified material for graded Sunday schools. *Relig. Educa.* 4:281-92. (Ag. '09.)
- GEISTWEIT, WILLIAM H. Present needs in young people's work. *Relig. Educa.* 4:262-67. (Ag. '09.)
- GIBSON, C. B. Recent tendencies toward industrial education in Europe and America. *South. Educa. R.* 6:275-84. (Fe.-Mr. '09.)
- GREEN, J. A. Experimental psychology and education. IV. *Sch. World.* 11:206-8. (Je. '09.)
- HARRISON, ELIZABETH. The religious training of children. *Relig. Educa.* 4:256-60. (Ag. '09.)
- HATCH, L. A. Why many fail in teaching nature-study. *Nat. Study R.* 1:97-100. (My. '09.)
- HATTON, A. P. The status and emoluments of army schoolmasters and schoolmistresses. *Sch. World.* 11:203-5. (Je. '09.)
- HYPE, WILLIAM DEWITT. Personality and college professors. *Out.* 92:931-37. (21 Ag. '09.)
- Inspection in Penguinland. A recension of certain MSS relating to education. *Sch. World.* 11:201-3. (Je. '09.)
- JENNINGS, J. T. Municipal civil service in libraries. *Pub. Lib.* 14:250-54. (Jl. '09.)
- JOHNSTON, CHARLES. A Chinese girl student's view of America. *Harp. W.* 53:15. (24 Jl. '09.)
- . A college of ideals: an impression of Bryn Mawr. *Harp. W.* 53:16, 17. (7 Ag. '09.)

- . The trouble with our universities. *Harp. W.* 53:27. (21 Ag. '09.)
- JONES, T. J. Relation of the state to the education of the negro. *South. Educa. R.* 6:309-13. (Fe.-Mr. '09.)
- JORDAN, DAVID STARR. Jane Lathrop Stanford. A eulogy. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 75:157-73. (Ag. '09.)
- JUDSON, HARRY PRATT. Religious co-operation. *Relig. Educa.* 4:249-52. (Ag. '09.)
- KAYLOR, M. A. Feelings, thought, and conduct of children toward animal pets. *Pedagog. Sem.* 16:205-39. (Je. '09.)
- LISHMAN, R. The wastage of pupils in municipal secondary schools. *Sch. World.* 11:285, 86. (Ag. '06.)
- MACKEY, PERCY. American pageants and their promise. *Scrib. M.* 56:28-34. (Jl. '09.)
- MCLENNAN, WILLIAM E. Courses of study for young people. *Relig. Educa.* 4:267-71. (Ag. '09.)
- MEAD, H. R. The value of the study of reference books. *Pub. Lib.* 14:158, 159. (Jl. '09.)
- MESERVE, C. F. Results of attempts at the higher education of the negro of the South. *South. Educa. R.* 6:285-93. (Fe.-Mr. '09.)
- MIALL, L. C. Ready-made lessons in nature-study. *Nat. Study R.* 1:101-4. (My. '05.)
- MILLER, G. A. The future of mathematics. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 75:117-23. (Ag. '09.)
- MORRISON, H. C. Federation of New England educational associations. *Journ. of Educa.* 70:87-89. (22 Jl. '09.)
- MOTT, MAJ. T. BENTLEY. The new army school of horsemanship. *Scrib. M.* 56:63-73. (Jl. '09.)
- MUTCH, W. J. The biblical preparation of the Sunday-school teacher. *Relig. Educa.* 4:260-62. (Ag. '09.)
- NORTHROP, ALICE R. Flower shows in city schools. *Nat. Study R.* 1:104-9. (My. '05.)
- PHILLIPS, J. H. The essential requirements of negro education. *South. Educa. R.* 6:294-302. (Fe.-Mr. '09.)
- Physical education in all schools. *Sch. World.* 11:211, 212. (Je. '09.)
- PICKERING, EDWARD C. The future of astronomy. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 75:105-16. (Ag. '09.)
- RANCK, SAMUEL H. Municipal legislative reference libraries: should they be established and maintained as a part of the public library of a city or as an independent department or organization. *Lib. Journ.* 34:345-50. (Ag. '09.)
- RICHARDS, S. A. International Congress on Modern Language Teaching. *Sch. World.* 11:210. (Je. '09.)

- SALMON, PRINCIPAL. The early grants for education. *Educa. Rec.* 17: 765-72. (Je. '09.)
- SAWTELL, W. W. Athletics in mixed secondary schools. *Sch. World.* 11: 289-91. (Ag. '09.)
- SCUDDER, MYRON T. Play days for country schools. *Out.* 92:1031-38. (28 Ag. '09.)
- Secondary education in industrial centres. *Sch. World.* 11:283-85. (Ag. '09.)
- SERCOMBE, PARKER H. The evils of American school systems. *Craftsman.* 16:603-11. (S. '09.)
- SMITH, JESSE M. The Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute and the development of engineering education. *Engin. N.* 62:185, 186. (19 Ag. '09.)
- SMITH, P. A. Some phases of the play of Japanese boys and men. *Pedagog. Sem.* 16:256-67. (Je. '09.)
- Some Old-Fashioned Children's Books. *Liv. Age.* 43:754-60. (19 Je. '09.)
- STEVENS, D. H. What college students read. *Out.* 92:651, 652. (18 Jl. '09.)
- STEWART, GEORGE B. The Sunday school as an educational force in social duty. *Relig. Educa.* 4:253-56. (Ag. '09.)
- WADE, HERBERT T. A museum to illustrate the development of mathematics. *Sci. Amer.* 101:10, 15, 17, 19. (3 Jl. '09.)
- WATTERSON, ADA. Guide to periodical literature, September, 1904, to April, 1905. *Nat. Study R.* 1:136-40. (My. '05.)
- WIGGAM, AUGUSTA. A contribution to the data of dream psychology. *Pedagog. Sem.* 16:240-51. (Je. '09.)
- WILLEY, DAY ALLEN. An American forestry school. *Sci. Amer.* 101: 113, 114. (14 Ag. '09.)
- WILLIAMS, TOM A. How inebriety might be prevented by early education. *Pedagog. Sem.* 16:195-204. (Je. '09.)
- WINSHIP, A. E. From absurd to beautiful books. *Journ. of Educa.* 69: 681-86. (24 Je. '09.)
- (The) year in education. *Out.* 92:675-80. (24 Jl. '09.)

